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ABSTRACT

This annual journal issue contains 24 papers on issues of faculty development, instructional improvement, knowledge and teaching, and communication in higher education. Many of the papers were developed for the annual conference of the Professional and Organizational Development Network in Higher Education (POD). The papers are: (1) "Teaching Improvement Practices: New Perspectives" (W. Alan Wright and M. Carol O'Neil); (2) "Deepening and Broadening the Dialogue About Teaching" (James R. Davis); (3) "Assessment and Values: A New Religion?" (Anita Gandolfo); (4) "Academic Leaders and Faculty Developers: Creating an Institutional Culture that Values Teaching" (Norman D. Aitken and Mary Deane Sorcinelli); (5) "Reclaiming Teaching Excellence: Miami University's Teaching Scholars Program" (Milton D. Cox); (6) "Valuing the Student Voice: Student Observer/Consultant Programs" (D. Lynn Sorenson); (7) "Metaphors of Teaching: Uncovering Hidden Instructional Values" (Darlene Hoffman); (8) "The Game of Academic Ethics: The Partnering of a Board Game" (Stephen E. Sugar and Carol A. Willet); (9) "The Implications of Cultural Diversity in American Schools" (Johnson A. Afolayan); (10) "A Report Card for Diversity" (Johnnella E. Butler); (11) "Knowledge Into Wisdom: Incorporating Values and Beliefs to Construct a Wise University" (Susan M. Aubrey and David K. Scott); (12) "Challenging Values: Conflict, Contradiction, and Pedagogy" (Jacqueline Mintz); (13) "Do You See What I See?" (Karin McGinnis and Kenneth Maeckelbergh); (14) "Putting Empowerment To Work in the Classroom" (Trudy Knowles et al.); (15) "Increasing Sensitivity to Diversity: Empowering Students" (Mary Anne Johnston); (16) "Leveling the Playing

Field" (Linda Hilsen and Deborah Petersen-Perlman); (17) "Faculty Perceptions of Undergraduate Teaching" (Deborah Olsen and Ada B. Simmons); (18) "Creating Teaching and Learning Partnerships with Students: Helping Faculty Listen to Student Voices" (Helen Rallis); (19) "College Students' Perceptions of Unfairness in the Classroom" (Rita Cobb Rodabaugh); (20) "Complex Cooperative Learning Structures for College and University Courses" (Philip G. Cottell, Jr. and Barbara J. Millis); (21) "Conducting Cooperative Cases" (Barbara J. Millis); (22) "The Value of Classroom Humor" (Richard J. Nichols et al.); (23) "Unconscious Values Within Four Academic Cultures. An Address Given at the 1994 POD Annual Conference" (William Bergquist); (24) "An Outsider's View of POD Values--and of POD's Value to the Academy" (1993 Conference Capstone Address) (Kathleen McGrory). Most papers contain references. (DB)

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Volume 13

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To Improve the Academy

Resources for Faculty, Instructional, and Organizational Development

Volume 13, 1994

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To Improve the Academy

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ORDERING INFORMATION

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INSTRUCTIONS TO CONTRIBUTORS FOR THE 1995 VOLUME

Anyone interested in the issues related to instructional, faculty, and organizational development in higher education may submit manuscripts. Typically, manuscripts are submitted to the current editors in January or early February of each year and sent through a blind review process. Correspondence, including requests for information about guidelines and submission of manuscripts for the 1994 volume, should be directed to:

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IN MEMORY OF
TOM PASTERNACK
(1937-1994)

With the publication of the 1994 *To Improve the Academy*, we pay tribute to Tom Pasternack who was a long time member of POD and valued Core Committee participant. Most recently, Tom was the Director of the Learning Resources Center and Professor of Psychology and Education at Randolph-Macon Woman's College.

Tom could always be counted on for a calmly and thoughtfully considered response to teaching issues. We learned much from him that will continue to live in our practice.

Karron G. Lewis

Karron Lewis
President
1994-1995

Foreword

The theme of the 1993 annual conference, "Unveiling Inherent Values, Invigorating Values Inquiry in Classrooms, Curricula, and Campus Life," was woven throughout the conference and is reflected in many of the articles in this volume. Bill Berquist described us as members of the Developmental Culture who value collaboration and dialogue. In her capstone address, Kay McGrory found these values portrayed as she attended sessions and visited with members during the conference. We value listening—to each other, to students, to faculty, to people who are different from ourselves. In fact, during the editing process for this volume, I was reminded over and over again that I need to be sure to ask questions and listen before making assumptions about what is or what should be happening in the classroom and in the Academy.

The articles in this volume invite readers to think about their missions, to examine the values of the institutions where they work. In the context of value inquiry, many of the articles offer practical suggestions for new ways to go about our work. There is much food for thought here and many suggestions for ways to begin new dialogues with faculty.

To Improve the Academy is the accomplishment of many hard-working POD members. It would not have been completed without the dedication of the associate editors: Beverly Black, University of Michigan; Linda Hilsen, the University of Minnesota at Duluth; Mary Pat Mann, Ohio University; Diane Nyhammer, McHenry County College; Charles Spuches, the State University of New York at Syracuse; Christine Stanley, The Ohio State University, and David Taylor Way, Cornell University, who served as an invited reviewer. Each associate editor spent many hours reading, evaluating, and editing the manuscripts. Special thanks go to Christine Stanley who took over for Nancy Chism after Nancy was selected as president-elect.

The editors of the previous three volumes of *To Improve the Academy* have provided immeasurable support. Linda Hilsen volunteered to serve again as an associate editor specifically to make sure that I did a good job of proofreading which is not my favorite task. Del Wright spent much time with me on the phone answering my questions. Jody Nyquist and Don Wulff provided a detailed written description of the process and excellent sample letters.

Thanks are also in order for many of the members of the McHenry County College (MCC) community. MCC is a small (2200 FTE) community college northwest of Chicago where I am associate dean of humanities. The humanities faculty were understanding when I scowled at them over stacks of manuscripts. My secretary, Ruth Kormanack, kept all of the manuscripts superbly organized and made sure that the authors knew the status of their work. Dale Naleway of Academic Computing went to much extra work to translate all of the discs into Wordperfect and to make copies for us in case any got lost on their way to the publisher.

Next year's volume will be edited by Ed Neal, University of North Carolina at Chapel Hill. I think of writing for *To Improve the Academy* as a way of creating and sustaining a dialogue about faculty development with the members of POD. I urge each of you to begin now thinking about what you will write for submission to the 1995 volume.

Emily C. (Rusty) Wadsworth
McHenry County College
Crystal Lake, Illinois
August 1994

Professional and Organizational Development Network in Higher Education (POD)

Mission Statement

Approved by the Core Committee on March 24, 1991

The Professional and Organizational Development Network in Higher Education (POD) fosters human development in higher education through faculty, instructional, and organizational development.

POD believes that people have value, as individuals and as members of groups. The development of students is a fundamental purpose of higher education and requires for its success effective advising, teaching, leadership, and management. Central to POD's philosophy is lifelong, holistic, personal and professional learning, growth, and change for the higher education community.

The three purposes of POD are:

- To provide support and services for its members through publications, conferences, consulting, and networking.
- To offer services and resources to others interested in faculty development.
- To fulfill an advocacy role, nationally, seeking to inform and persuade educational leaders of the value of faculty, instructional, and organizational development in institutions of higher education.

Membership

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Section I

Teaching Improvement Practices and Programs

As we go about our daily business of encouraging faculty to examine and to improve their teaching, it would be helpful to know where we can most effectively expend our energies and resources. The articles in this section define which teaching improvement practices instructional developers believe are most likely to result in improved teaching and describe several successful instructional development programs.

W. Alan Wright and M. Carol O'Neil surveyed instructional developers in Canadian and U.S. colleges and universities to determine their perception of the relative effectiveness of 36 teaching improvement practices. Their study concluded that the most effective practice was the leadership provided by deans and department heads. "Employment policies and practices," including, among others, recognition of teaching in tenure and promotion decisions and regular review of faculty teaching effectiveness ranked second. Least effective was the summative evaluation of instruction. There seems to be a curious disparity here. While an institutional climate that demonstrates the importance of teaching through evaluation of teaching for employment, retention, promotion, and tenure is considered very important, the actual practice of evaluation is considered at best unimportant and at least suspect. Perhaps the clue to the disparity lies in the highly ranked category "deans/heads promote climate of trust for classroom observation." Or, faculty may need to see teaching as part of summative evaluations but prefer that the process of evaluation be, at least in spirit, formative.

Jim Davis in "Deepening and Broadening the Dialogue about Teaching" recommends that our conversations about teaching be more firmly grounded in empirical research and theories of teaching and learning. This conversation must also be embedded in the dialogue about curriculum content and student outcomes. Davis goes on to describe the University of Denver's Center for Academic Quality and Assessment of Student Learning which works through colleges, schools, and departments to evaluate curriculum, assess student outcomes, and work with faculty to shape their teaching to the curriculum and desired student outcomes.

Anita Gandolfo suggests that learning outcomes assessment, when owned by the faculty and done as formative evaluation, can serve as an important force in instructional development. In "Assessment and Values: A New Religion?" she describes a successful formative, learning outcomes assessment model in the West Virginia University general education program.

A many faceted program at the University of Massachusetts at Amherst provides central administration support for teaching that enables deans, department chairs, and faculty to express their strong commitment to teaching. Aitken and Sorcinelli describe the program which includes, among other approaches, celebrations of teaching, formative evaluation, mentoring, and consultation.

Miami University's Teaching Scholars Program focuses on junior faculty to demonstrate the institution's commitment to teaching. The honorific program, described by Milton Cox in "Reclaiming Teaching Excellence: Miami University's Teaching Scholars Program," provides seminars on teaching and learning, involvement of senior faculty as mentors, teaching projects, national conferences, and retreats.

Students can be trained to observe teaching and give various levels of feedback. D. Lynn Sorensen summarizes the major elements of these programs and gives suggestions for implementation in her article on student observer/consultant programs.

Darlene Hoffman suggests that faculty are better able to approach improving their teaching if they uncover the ways in which their teaching reflects their values. In "Metaphors of Teaching: Uncovering

Hidden Instructional Values," she compares problem based and value based teaching consultation. She describes a value based teaching consultation model.

Sugar and Willett have designed a board game around issues of academic ethics. This game, presented in "The Game of Academic Ethics: The Partnering of a Board Game," can be used with faculty to generate discussions of ethical issues that arise in teaching.

Teaching Improvement Practices: New Perspectives

W. Alan Wright

M. Carol O'Neil

Dalhousie University

The movement to improve the quality of teaching and learning in higher education has gained increasing importance over the last several years. Policies and programs aimed at enhancing instruction are becoming commonplace as post-secondary institutions strive to provide a high quality educational experience for students. The impact of different teaching improvement practices varies, and decision-makers in universities and colleges need to know where best to place their efforts and resources. The experienced judgement of teaching improvement practitioners can assist others in making these decisions.

This study examines the results of surveys of key instructional development role players at universities and colleges in the United States and in Canada and compares the responses of the two respondent groups. Respondents rated the potential of 36 practices to improve teaching at their respective institutions. Analysis revealed patterns of agreement and disagreement within and between the U.S. and Canadian respondent groups. The leadership of deans and department heads and employment policies and practices were seen as having the greatest potential to improve teaching. Respondents had the least confidence that summative evaluation of teaching would improve instruction.

The last several years have seen a growing interest in ways to improve the quality of teaching and learning in higher education. There is a widespread belief that post-secondary institutions must broaden their notions of scholarship to include a greater emphasis on teaching and to take steps to improve the quality of educational processes. As a result, the teaching improvement movement has taken on increased importance in the higher education sphere in a number of countries. New and existing policies and programs designed to enhance teaching and learning are subject to increased scrutiny as instructional developers, faculty, and administrators attempt to meet the challenges of the shifting emphasis to educational goals and tangible educational outcomes.

This report describes the results of an inquiry into the perceived impact of teaching improvement practices on university and college campuses in the United States and Canada. The United States portion of the study was undertaken with the support of the Professional and Organizational Development Network in Higher Education under the 1993-94 POD Grant Program. The research has since been extended to the United Kingdom and Australia and the results of the complete international study will be included in a forthcoming volume.[1]

Utilizing survey research, the study recorded the perceptions of key campus players regarding the teaching improvement potential of a variety of institutional policies and practices. The analysis yielded information about patterns of agreement and disagreement within and between the U.S. and Canadian groups, providing a commentary on the various improvement initiatives. We believe that the information presented from our surveys can assist institutions and individuals in making informed decisions when planning and evaluating teaching improvement strategies.

Method

The purpose of the study was twofold: first, to examine how key instructional development role players at universities and colleges in the United States perceive the potential impact of various teaching improvement practices; second, to compare these results with data obtained from a similar group at Canadian universities.

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[1] Wright, W. Alan. (in press). *Teaching improvement practices: Successful strategies for higher education.* Bolton, MA: Anker.

The U.S. sample was drawn from the membership of the Professional and Organizational Development Network in Higher Education (POD). Questionnaires were sent to 290 individual members of POD from either a university or college (members from other types of institutions or organizations were not included in the sample). To ensure proper distribution among institutions, each university, college, or semi-autonomous campus received only one questionnaire. In the case of institutions with more than one POD member, an attempt was made to identify the most appropriate respondent, defined in the cover letter as "a director of a faculty development center, a head of a committee on teaching and learning, or an academic whose specific responsibility is faculty development." As a further means of ensuring that the response group contained only pertinent campus actors, the survey instrument included a question about the nature of the respondent's involvement in teaching improvement activities. The initial mailing and follow-up letters to non-respondents yielded 165 completed questionnaires, a response rate of 57%.

The questionnaire included two sections. The first requested information on the specific role of the respondent in teaching improvement activities, the institutional structures aimed at enhancing/improving teaching, the size of the student population, and the institution's Carnegie classification (The Carnegie Foundation for the Advancement of Teaching, 1987). The second section consisted of a list of 36 items (activities, policies, and practices) related to teaching improvement. The respondent was asked to "rate each item to indicate the confidence you have in its potential to improve the quality of teaching in your university."

The aggregate responses for the 36 teaching improvement practices were then rank-ordered from highest to lowest according to the mean score of each item on the rating scale of 1 (least confident) to 10 (most confident). Ranking of individual questionnaire items in this way establishes respondents' relative confidence levels in the potential of each activity to improve teaching. This method of analysis allows for comparison between national respondent groups by taking into account their tendencies to give higher or lower overall ratings. The resulting patterns of response provide the basis for the development of a preliminary profile of assessments made by teaching improvement actors in the two national settings. Although a detailed analysis and comparison of data according to the specific roles of respondents and factors like institutional size and mission would be of interest, such an analysis is beyond the scope of this article.

An analytic framework of nine previously-defined categories[2] of four items each provided a means of grouping related policies and activities. These categories allowed for the identification of areas of institutional priority and responsibility for the initiation and implementation of the teaching improvement practices.

Results

The study analyzed the responses from key instructional development role players at 165 university and college campuses in the United States and 51 universities in Canada (approximately 85% of all Canadian degree-granting institutions). Table 1 provides a summary of the respondents' roles and the institutions' structures, sizes, and Carnegie classifications (except that the latter is not identified in the Canadian case).

Table 2 and Table 3 provide a rank-ordering of the responses according to the results of the U.S. survey. The Canadian results are included (but not rank-ordered) for comparison purposes. Table 2 lists the mean rating and standard deviation for each questionnaire item, from the highest rated to the lowest. Table 3 lists the nine categories employed by the researchers, rank-ordered by the aggregate mean of the four component items in each. These results are discussed in more detail below.

Table 4 outlines the various institutional structures related to teaching and teaching improvement at the universities and colleges of both Canadian and U.S. respondent groups.

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[2] The categories and an early version of the questionnaire were devised in 1991 by Roger Barnsley of St. Thomas University, Graham Skanes of Memorial University of Newfoundland, and Alan Wright of Dalhousie University. The questionnaire was first used in June 1991 in the context of an instructional development seminar for senior university administrators in the Association of Atlantic Universities (Canada). Several surveys on instructional development practices from the United States and Canada, used prior to 1990, were consulted when designing the questionnaire (see especially Erickson, 1986, Cochran, 1989).

TABLE 1
Respondents' Profile

	United States (165 respondents)		Canada (51 respondents)	
Respondent's Involvement in Teaching Improvement Activities	N	%	N	%
Full time director of instructional development office	42	25.5	8	15.7
Part time director of instructional development office	30	18.2	13	25.4
Full time faculty member & Chair of teaching committee	28	17.0	9	17.6
Person responsible for (among other things) faculty development	34	20.6	5	9.8
Other	29	17.6	15	29.4
Missing	2	1.2	1	2.0
Size of Institution (student enrollment)	N	%	N	%
<1,000	14	8.5	4	7.8
1,001 to 2,500	30	18.2	7	13.7
2,501 to 5,000	26	15.8	8	15.7
5,001 to 10,000	31	18.8	9	17.6
10,001 to 20,000	27	16.4	10	19.6
<20,000	32	19.4	12	23.5
Missing	5	3.0	1	2.0
Carnegie Classification of Institution	N	%	N	%
Research University I	33	20.0	(Not Applicable)	
Research University II	12	7.3		
Doctorate-Granting University I	11	6.7		
Doctorate-Granting University II	4	2.4		
Comprehensive University or College I	36	21.8		
Comprehensive University or College II	16	9.7		
Liberal Arts College I	11	6.7		
Liberal Arts College II	8	4.8		
Two-Year Community, Junior, or Technical College	14	8.5		
Professional School or other Specialized Institution	15	9.0		
Missing	5	3.0		

TABLE 2
Items by Rank

Rate each item to indicate the confidence you have in its potential to improve the quality of teaching in your university.

Teaching Improvement Practice	United States N=165			Canada N=51		
	Rank	Mean	S.D.	Rank	Mean	S.D.
Recognition of teaching in tenure and promotion decisions	1.	8.30	1.65	1.	8.68	1.64
Deans/Heads foster importance of teaching responsiblities	2.	8.13	1.66	4.	7.60	1.94
Deans/Heads promote climate of trust for classroom observation	3.	8.00	1.87	26.	6.43	2.35
Center to promote effective instruction	4.	7.72	1.93	3.	7.70	1.52
Deans/Heads praise & reward good teaching	5.	7.65	1.77	8.*	7.31	2.03
Mentoring programs & support for new professors	6.*	7.63	1.60	7.	7.39	1.46
Grants to faculty to devise new approaches to teaching	6.*	7.63	1.82	22.	6.67	1.85
Deans/Heads give funds/opportunity for classroom research	8.	7.55	1.90	6.	7.45	1.79
Hiring practices require demonstration of teaching ability	9.	7.48	2.10	2.	7.98	1.64
Consultation on course materials with faculty peers	10.	7.43	1.58	8.*	7.31	1.63
Senior admin. give visibility to teaching improvement activities	11.	7.34	1.86	10.	7.30	1.84
Videotaping classroom teaching for analysis & improvement	12.	7.33	1.81	12.	6.90	2.04
Workshops on teaching methods for targeted groups	13.	7.31	1.80	5.	7.55	1.64
Availability of expert teaching consultant	14.	7.29	1.92	11.	7.12	1.85
Temporary workload reduction for course improvement/revision	15.	7.20	1.84	17.	6.77	1.95
Regular (non-t&p) review of faculty teaching effectiveness	16.	7.09	2.11	23.	6.66	2.02
Funds for faculty to attend conference/course on teaching	17.	7.08	1.76	18.	6.76	1.88

Table continues *denotes tie

Table II (continued)

Teaching dossier recognized record of teaching accomplishments	18.	7.07	1.88	21.	6.71	2.10
Mid-term student feedback to instructor (formative)	19.	7.04	1.96	20.	6.73	2.01
Conference on teaching and learning held on campus	20.	7.01	1.73	14.*	6.82	1.73
Seminars on understanding student learning	21.	6.96	1.69	16.	6.78	1.65
Classroom observation by peers for improvement purposes	22.	6.94	1.78	27.	6.41	1.99
Sabbatical leaves for improving teaching	23.	6.84	2.00	24.	6.60	2.17
Faculty review of academic program to improve instruction	24.	6.70	1.93	14.*	6.82	1.89
Senior admin. foster institutional pride which stimulates effective instruction	25.	6.52	2.23	25.	6.45	2.13
Course materials reviewed in university review procedures (summative)	26.	6.34	2.16	29.	6.20	1.97
Senior admin. emphasizes how research supports teaching	27.	6.32	2.17	19.	6.74	2.14
Importance of teaching made public by senior administrators	28.	6.11	2.43	13.	6.84	2.58
Annual report on teaching accomplishments (summative)	29.	5.91	2.23	33.*	5.71	2.23
Faculty committee with mandate for improving instruction	30.	5.85	2.12	28.	6.36	1.77
Teaching recognition programs (e.g., awards)	31.	5.79	2.04	31.	6.00	2.18
Circulation of articles & newsletters on teaching	32.*	5.74	1.87	30.	6.10	1.65
Classroom observation by peers/heads for summative purposes	32.*	5.74	2.04	36.	4.96	2.18
End-of-term student feedback for summative purposes	34.	5.25	2.35	32.	5.73	2.52
Speakers on issues in higher education	35.	5.07	1.92	33.*	5.71	1.83
Readily accessible professional libary	36.	4.34	2.12	35.	5.14	1.99

*denotes tie

TABLE 3
Categories by Rank

Category Name	United States				Canada			
			Category				Category	
	Category Rank	Item Rank	Mean	S.D.	Category Rank	Item Rank	Mean	S.D
"Leadership: Deans & Heads"	1		30.85	5.95	2		28.39	6.45
Deans/heads foster importance of teaching responsibilities		(2)				(4)		
Deans/heads promote climate of trust for classroom observation		(3)				(26)		
Deans/heads praise & reward good teaching		(5)				(8)*		
Deans/heads give funds/ opportunity for classroom research		(8)				(6)		
"Employment Policies & Practices"	2		29.43	6.18	1		29.73	5.68
Recognition of teaching in tenure & promotion decisions		(1)				(1)		
Hiring practices require demonstration of teaching ability		(9)				(2)		
Regular (non-t&p) review of faculty teaching effectiveness		(16)				(23)		
Teaching dossier recognized record of teaching accomplishments		(18)				(21)		
"Development Opportunities & Grants"	3		28.18	5.91	6		26.53	5.86
Grants to faculty to devise new approaches to teaching		(6)*				(22)		
Temporary workload reduction for course improvement/revision		(15)				(17)		
Funds for faculty to attend conference/course on teaching		(17)				(18)		
Sabbatical leaves for improving teaching		(23)				(24)		

Table continues *denotes tie

Table 3 continued

"Formative Evaluation of Instruction"	4		26.81	5.63	7		26.49	5.56
Consultation on course materials with faculty peers (formative)		(10)				(8)*		
Videotaping classroom teaching for analysis & improvement		(12)				(12)		
Mid-term student feedback to instructor (formative)		(19)				(20)		
Classroom observation by peers for improvement purposes		(22)				(27)		
"Educational Events"	5		26.12	5.92	4		26.73	5.71
Workshops on teaching methods for targeted groups		(13)				(5)		
Conference on teaching and learning held on campus		(20)				(14)*		
Seminars on understanding student learning		(21)				(16)		
Speakers on issues in higher education		(35)				(33)*		
"Leadership: Senior Administrators"	6		25.85	7.32	3		27.06	7.36
Senior admin. gives visibility to teaching improvement activities		(11)				(10)		
Senior admin. foster Institutional pride which stimulates effective instruction		(25)				(25)		
Senior admin. emphasizes how research supports teaching		(27)				(19)		
Importance of teaching made public by senior administrators		(28)				(13)		
"Structure & Organizations"	7		25.57	5.92	5		26.61	5.52
Center to promote effective instruction		(4)				(3)		
Faculty review of academic program to improve instruction		(24)				(14)*		
Faculty committee with mandate for improving instruction		(30)				(28)		
Teaching recognition programs (e.g. awards)		(31)				(31)		

Table continues *denotes tie

Table 3 continued

"Developmental Resources"	8		24.78	4.95	8		25.75	5.04
Mentoring programs & support for new professors		(6)*				(7)		
Availability of expert teaching consultant		(14)				(11)		
Circulation of articles & newsletters on teaching		(32)*				(30)		
Readily accessible professional library		(36)				(35)		
"Summative Evaluation of Instruction"	9		22.78	6.46	9		22.47	6.53
Course materials reviewed in university review process (summative)		(26)				(29)		
Annual report on teaching accomplishments (summative)		(29)				(33)*		
Classroom observation by peers/heads for summative purposes		(32)*				(36)		
End-of-term student feedback for summative purposes		(34)				(32)		

*denotes tie

TABLE 4
Institutional Structures Devoted to Teaching in the United States and Canada

	United States 165 respondents)		Canada (51 respondents)	
Structure	n*	%	n*	%
A center or office devoted primarily to the improvement of teaching	98	60	22	43
A standing faculty committee on teaching	66	40	22	43
An *ad hoc* faculty committee on teaching	24	15	17	33
Other**	28	17	9	18

*Some institutions have more than one of these structures

**Includes planning bodies for a teaching center or standing committees, pedagogical resource centers, advisory panels, teaching awards and grants committees, and structures related to curriculum development and student needs

Leadership: Deans and Department Heads

The data indicates a widespread conviction that deans and department chairpersons have a significant role to play in improving teaching on campus. The aggregate mean of the U.S. responses in this category was 30.85, the highest of the nine groupings. The Canadian survey yielded an aggregate mean of 28.39 and a ranking of second.

All four items in this category were among the highest ten ratings in both countries, with one exception.[3] Deans' and chairpersons' recognition of teaching as an important aspect of academic responsibility ranked second in the U.S. and fourth in Canada. Their praising and rewarding of good teaching ranked fifth in the U.S. and eighth in Canada. Department head praise and reward for good teaching was also rated among the most effective teaching improvement practices by Canadian faculty developers in 1988 (Schulz, p. 9). Ranked eighth for the American group and sixth for the Canadian was providing opportunities and funds for classroom research to improve instruction.

The activities described in this category are readily accomplished by deans and department heads and, with one exception, require minimal resources. Providing funding and opportunities for faculty to engage in research on teaching and learning does require a tangible commitment but is an important activity all too often overlooked or rejected as too costly by teaching improvement planners. Our respondents clearly felt that classroom research has a strong potential for improving instruction, but there appears to be little institutional support for this activity. Cochran (1989) reported that chief academic officers at universities and colleges in the United States scored research on teaching the lowest of 25 measures of institutional commitment to teaching and learning. And in Canada, the Report of the Commission of Inquiry on Canadian University Education (Smith,

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[3] The responses on one item revealed significant differences between the opinions of U.S. respondents and their Canadian counterparts. "Deans and chairs creating a climate of trust which supports classroom observation" ranked third in the U.S. survey and twenty-sixth in the Canadian survey. It should be noted that some ambiguity in the terms used to describe this item (the lack of a clearly defined purpose for the "classroom observation") makes it difficult to draw conclusions from the results. The clear difference between the views of the two responding groups does raise some questions about whether it is due to true respondent variance, instrument error, or some other cause. Further investigation is necessary to resolve these questions.

1991) called for greater support for research into ways to improve teaching and learning.

As academics with administrative responsibility, deans and department chairpersons have considerable influence in the institution through their possession of intellectual authority, their actions as key agents of socialization into the profession, and their role as transmitters of academic culture (Neumann, 1992). Deans and chairpersons can play a pivotal role in improving teaching by creating an environment in which the importance of the teaching function is articulated and supported.

In a study of faculty and their work environment, Blackburn, Lawrence, Bieber, and Trautvetter (1991) found that three measures of faculty perceptions of the environment are strongly related to the effort faculty allocate to teaching: faculty perceptions of institutional expectations regarding teaching effort, their perceptions of other professors' commitment to teaching, and the existence of support services and consensus on curriculum. In each of these areas, deans and department chairpersons can have either a direct or an indirect impact on the perceptions of faculty and the consequent effort they give to teaching and teaching-related activities.

In an evaluation of the Lilly Teaching Fellow Program, Rice and Austin (1990) argue that the role of deans and chairpersons is so significant that, without their active support, "many incentives to encourage good teaching may be fruitless" (p. 39). The four teaching improvement activities in the leadership category represent only a few of the many ways in which deans and department heads can influence attitudes and practices.

Employment Policies and Practices

The aggregate mean for the second-ranked category "Employment Policies and Practices" was 29.43 for the U.S. respondent group, while a mean of 29.73 made this the highest ranked of the nine categories for the Canadian respondent group. In spite of general agreement that employment issues play an important role in teaching improvement, an examination of the individual items in this category reveals interesting differences within and between the two national groups.

"Recognition of teaching effectiveness and its evaluation as a significant and integral aspect of all career decisions" achieved the highest ranking in both countries. An earlier survey of Canadian faculty developers ranked a similar item–"university merit and promotion committee carefully scrutinizes teaching"–the most effective of 15 practices to improve teaching (Schulz, 1988, p. 9). These results are not surprising: at many institutions there is little incentive for faculty to improve their instructional effectiveness. Diamond (1993-94) reports that the majority of the 23,000 department chairpersons, deans, and administrators at research universities responding to a recent survey recognize a pressing need "to modify the system to recognize and reward teaching."

A study by the Carnegie Foundation for the Advancement of Teaching (1991) analyzed faculty reports of time spent in class and in preparation for teaching, time spent on research, numbers of publications, class size, and the performance measures used in tenure decisions. The authors concluded that the paths for career advancement vary at different types of institutions in the United States: at research-intensive institutions[4], "[i]t matters little what is happening in the classroom," while teaching is the primary determinant of success in teaching-intensive institutions (p. 26). But this conclusion may be overstating differences in employment rewards at different types of institutions. Indeed, while the evaluation of teaching appears to play a minor role in tenure decision-making at research-intensive institutions, only one factor relating to teaching performance ("student evaluation of courses taught") was among the "most widely used indicators for tenure decisions" at even teaching-intensive institutions (p. 24).

The relationship between rewards and teaching is further examined in a recent study of faculty activities and incomes. Fairweather (1993) investigated the relationship between salaries and teaching, research, and service activities at 424 colleges and universities in the

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[4] Institutional type is defined in *A Classification of Institutions in Higher Education* 1987 ed. Princeton, NJ: The Carnegie Foundation for the Advancement of Teaching.

United States. The results of this study indicate a disturbing pattern: overall, at all types of institutions and for all ranks of the professoriate, research and related activities are better rewarded than instructional activities. Differences among institution types and professorial ranks do exist, but here, too, the findings are troubling. For example, even at liberal arts colleges, where the primary focus is undergraduate education, instructional activities were not significant predictors of pay; indeed, spending more time in class and teaching undergraduates were found to have a *negative* relationship to compensation (p. 12). The only positive correlation between salaries and teaching at liberal arts colleges was for assistant professors teaching fewer hours to larger classes (p. 11). Fairweather concludes:

> These data suggest that efforts to enhance undergraduate education ... have a long way to go to change such a deeply seated reward structure. In the end, to enhance undergraduate education, the faculty and administrative cultures which so strongly support research must learn to see teaching as an important scholarly contribution ... (pp. 11-12)

Our study reveals that 95.5% of the U.S. respondent group rated "recognition and evaluation of teaching in career decision-making" in the high to moderately-high range. However, there were some differences among respondents from different types of institutions (see Table 5). In particular, 90.6% of U.S. respondents from "Research I" institutions–the so-called "very high research-intensive institutions" in the Carnegie study–rated the teaching-improvement potential of this item in the "high" range of 8-10, while only 63.8% of the "low research-intensive institutions" (Comprehensive and Liberal Arts schools) did so. While this result might at first glance appear to be inconsistent with the findings in the Carnegie study, a fair interpretation might be that since measures of teaching performance already play a greater role in tenure decision-making at teaching-intensive institutions, the potential impact of this activity is seen to be higher at research-intensive institutions.

Another item concerning employment policies and practices revealed differences between the two national groups. "Hiring practices require a demonstration of teaching ability" was seen by the Canadians as relatively more important than by the U.S. respondents. This item ranked second in the Canadian survey but only ninth in the U.S. survey.

Confidence levels in the remaining two items in this category, which describe policies regarding the evaluation of teaching, were relatively modest for both respondent groups. The regular (in addition to tenure and promotion) review of faculty members' teaching effectiveness achieved a rank of 16 for the U.S. group and 23 for the Canadians. "Keeping a teaching portfolio as the recognized system of recording teaching effectiveness" ranked 18th in the U.S. and 21st in Canada.

TABLE 5
Teaching Improvement Potential of Recognizing Teaching Effectiveness in Career Decisions
(U.S. Survey)

Respondents were asked to rate their confidence, on a scale of 1 (least confident) to 10 (most confident), in recognizing teaching effectiveness in tenure and promotion decisions as a means of improving instruction.

Percent

Institution Type (N)	low (1,2,3)	moderately low (4,5)	moderately high (6,7)	high (8,9,10)
Research I (33)		3.1	6.3	90.6
Research II (12)			33.3	66.7
Doctoral I (11)			10.0	90.0
Doctoral II (4)				100.0
Comprehensive I (36)	2.9	5.7	31.4	60.0
Comprehensive II (16)			37.5	62.5
Liberal Arts I (11)			27.3	72.7
Liberal Arts II (8)			28.6	71.4
2 Yr. College (14)	7.1		28.6	64.3
Professional (15)		13.3	13.3	73.3
TOTAL (165)	1.3	3.2	22.4	73.1

Each of these activities can play an important role in a comprehensive teaching-improvement strategy. Performance reviews may not, in isolation, improve the quality of instruction, but, when coupled with developmental activities, can lead to improvements in the quality of instruction (Trask, 1989; Weimer, 1991).

A policy which encourages the use of the teaching portfolio as a method of documenting teaching performance can have an impact beyond the benefits to the individual faculty member. Because compiling a dossier involves a systematic examination of one's teaching goals, values, performance, and outcomes, faculty are required to engage in the kind of self-reflection and evaluation which leads to behavioral change. In addition, making this type of documentation a part of regular procedures encourages discussion across campus about a variety of educational issues including teaching philosophies and objectives and ways to assess performance and outcomes (O'Neil & Wright, 1993, pp. 10-16). Such an exchange of ideas helps to raise the profile of postsecondary teaching, to emphasize its importance, and to foster efforts to improve instruction. Support for the use of the teaching portfolio as both a developmental and evaluation tool is growing. After a comprehensive review of the literature, Blackburn and Pitney (1988) recommended the portfolio system for performance appraisal for both administrative and developmental purposes.

Development Opportunities and Grants

The survey included four items in the category "Development Opportunities and Grants." In the U.S. survey, the ranking of this group of questions was third out of nine categories, while in the Canadian survey this grouping ranked significantly lower–sixth of nine categories. The aggregate means were 28.18 and 26.53, respectively. The ranks of the individual items ranged from seven to 23 in the U.S. survey and from 17 to 24 in the Canadian.

Grants to faculty to devise new approaches to teaching ranked sixth in the U.S. survey. The practice of institutional grants to enable faculty to develop "new or different approaches to courses or teaching" is well established and widespread: 64% of the U.S. post-secondary institutions surveyed in 1985 reported providing funds to faculty for this purpose (Erickson, 1986). Although a large number of Canadian universities also provide funds for teaching innovation (Wright, 1993), this item ranked only 22nd on the Canadian survey. The difference in ranking between the U.S. and Canadian surveys with respect to this practice is notably high. This gap, for which we have no particular explanation, is surprising since the other items in this category are rated similarly by the two groups. The grants, commonly ranging from $250 to $5,000, are generally awarded by university committees charged with the assessment of faculty grant proposals. The grants support the development and purchase of innovative teaching materials and facilitate the testing of new teaching strategies (Weimer & Lenze, 1991; Wright, 1993).

Offering temporary workload reductions for course improvement or revision and funds for faculty to attend conferences or courses on teaching constitute two further strategies to improve teaching. These items ranked 15th and 27th in the U.S. survey, 17th and 28th in the Canadian survey. Frequently, release time from teaching is made possible by the internal funding committees described earlier, but in some instances a separate committee has been established to provide faculty fellowships to develop teaching and learning projects or to enhance teaching skills "when such development or enhancement could not take place in the context of a full teaching load" (Wright, 1993). Erickson (1986) found that temporary workload reductions were available in almost 60% of the institutions surveyed, though work in the professor's area of research was included as a possible focus along with course revision and development (p. 189).

Travel funds to attend professional conferences were reported available in over 90% of institutions surveyed by Erickson (1986, p. 189). It is not clear whether these funds were established to specifically support attendance at conferences on university teaching and learning *per se*. A separate fund offers the advantage of giving priority to conferences on university pedagogy over the discipline-based research meetings which are often funded by other sources.

The provision of sabbatical leaves for the purpose of improving teaching ranked 23rd in the U.S. survey and 24th in the Canadian survey. Four out of every five colleges and universities surveyed by Erickson (1986) offered sabbatical leaves with at least half salary (p.

189). But we do not know how many institutions award sabbaticals specifically for teaching improvement purposes. A recent study of universities in Atlantic Canada revealed that several institutional policy documents make some reference to teaching improvement as an intended outcome of a sabbatical leave and that one university includes explicit reference to supporting sabbatical projects "directed primarily toward enhancement of teaching" (Brooks, 1993, p. 1).

The fact that the survey question regarding grants to faculty to improve teaching and to innovate ranked seventh in the U.S. survey suggests a relatively high degree of confidence among faculty developers in the potential of these grants. And a review of the effectiveness of this type of grant, as well as the other types mentioned, indicates very high ratings among respondents familiar with the workings of institutional grants programs (Weimer & Lenze, 1991). Yet we do not know "[w]hether or not grants have any measurable effects on instructional quality" (Weimer & Lenze, 1991, p. 316). There is a need to investigate the impacts of teaching improvement grants–a popular development strategy which currently involves a considerable expenditure of resources.

Formative Evaluation

The category "Formative Evaluation" ranked fourth in the U.S. survey (aggregate mean, 26.81) but only seventh in the Canadian survey (26.49). Formative evaluation is conducted primarily for the purpose of feedback and instructional improvement. Students, faculty colleagues, and, at times, 'expert' consultants or faculty/instructional developers are partners in the formative evaluation process.

Consultation regarding course materials (outlines, readings, evaluation procedures, etc.) with faculty peers ranked tenth in the U.S. survey and eighth in the Canadian survey. This type of consultation was practiced in more than half of the colleges and universities surveyed by Erickson (1986, p. 187). Our respondents may rank this item more highly than other formative evaluation techniques because it is straightforward and uncomplicated, undertaken on a cooperative and voluntary basis by peers, and deals with tangible documentary (mainly print) evidence of one's approach to teaching, as opposed to a potentially more subjective monitoring of classroom performance.

Videotaping of classroom practice for the analysis and improvement of instruction ranked 12th in both countries while classroom observation by faculty peers to assist in the improvement of instruction ranked 22nd in the United States and 27th in Canada. It is interesting to note that survey respondents have relatively high confidence in videotaping as a tool: it is seen to be potentially more effective than simple classroom observation by peers. Do our respondents have relatively little confidence in peer observation for teaching improvement because of the lack of preparation and training of faculty to allow them to successfully undertake the task? If that is the case, do our respondents believe that protocols for the effective use of videotapes to improve classroom instruction ensure the success of this technique? The authors are of the opinion that both approaches to teaching improvement have considerable potential, but that preparation and training may constitute key factors for their effective use in higher education. The Erickson survey (1986) showed that videotaping of classes for improvement purposes was not as widely available as was classroom observation by peers, especially in private institutions (p. 187). Weimer and Lenze (1991) report that videotaping for instructional improvement offers "tantalizing possibilities" and that research "seems to indicate a positive impact" of the technique (p. 312).

Mid-term student ratings of instruction as feedback to the instructor ranked 19th in the U.S. and 20th in the Canadian survey. The practice of student ratings is well-established and widespread. Student ratings results (either formative or summative) were available to faculty in over 95% of colleges and universities according to the Erickson study (1986, p. 187). The availability of trained consultants to help faculty interpret student ratings was much less prevalent (p. 187). Student ratings programs constitute the most common means of assessing instruction in universities in Canada and the United States today, yet faculty developers view them as having only moderate potential to improve teaching. Perhaps our respondents would rank student ratings more highly if they were more commonly used in conjunction with the services of trained consultants, who would work with faculty to analyze and interpret the ratings and suggest adjustments to their teaching. Weimer and Lenze (1991) conclude, after a thorough literature review, that consultation regarding student ratings can "make a difference," but that further research is needed to shed more light on this process (p. 312). The authors also found that none of the research on the various consultation techniques designed to improve instruction measured impact in terms of student learning outcomes (p. 312).

Educational Events

The category of "Educational Events" had an aggregate ranking of fifth (aggregate mean, 26.12) among the nine categories in the U.S. survey. Workshops on teaching methods for targeted groups ranked in the top third (16th) of the 36 items, while on-campus conferences on teaching and learning, as well as seminars on student learning, ranked in the second half among the items (20th and 21st, respectively). Speakers on general issues and trends in higher education ranked near the very bottom of the list (35th). The category ranked sixth in the Canadian survey (26.73). The workshop item ranked fifth; conference and seminars, 14th and 16th; and speakers on issues in higher education, 33rd. Canadian respondents showed more confidence in some types of educational events than did their counterparts in the United States.

Workshops, seminars, and programs are considered the traditional "main staple of the instructional improver's cupboard" (Weimer & Lenze, 1991, p. 298). Of the various categories of workshops and seminars described by Erickson (1986), those concerned with "various methods or techniques of instruction" were the most common. This type of workshop was offered at over 60% of the institutions surveyed (p. 187). An inventory of activities sponsored by teaching development offices in Canadian universities also showed workshops to be one of the most common elements of an institutional instructional development program (Schulz, 1988).

Workshops vary as to topic, instructional methods, target population, and length. According to several reviews of workshop/seminar program effectiveness reported in Weimer and Lenze (1991), faculty participants often rate the programs "useful, relevant, and informative," especially those which are longer and to which faculty make a significant commitment (p. 304). Experience suggests that workshops should: be planned and publicized thoroughly, address the concerns of a wide range of faculty, be conducted by a resource person who is both knowledgeable and skilled in workshop methodology, engage the participants in active learning, and be evaluated on site by participants. Even then, isolated workshops may have a limited impact. The most successful events relate to a theme pursued in other ways by the instructional development center and/or involve a workshop series to allow a thorough exploration of a topic or an approach to teaching.

At Dalhousie University, the demand for faculty workshops on the teaching portfolio led to discussion of the concept at meetings of the Senate Committee on Instructional Development, to the creation of workshop materials, and, eventually, to the publication of a 100-page guide to compiling a teaching portfolio. A series on writing across the curriculum was launched by a major invited speaker, followed by a number of low-key seminars drawing on local faculty as presenters, and culminated in the publication of a compendium of classroom writing assignments and techniques contributed by over 40 faculty members, most of whom participated in the series (Herteis & Wright, 1992).

Unfortunately, the reputation of workshops relies too heavily on participant feedback and organizer intuition: there is a great need to measure outcomes of this popular component of faculty development programs in terms of observable teaching improvement and increased student learning.

As noted, workshops for targeted groups of faculty are more highly regarded than are the seminars, conferences, and speakers on trends in higher education as suggested by the other items in this category. An international study of faculty development specialists ranked "workshops or programs that explore general trends in higher education" least effective of the six practices included in the survey (Shackelford, Seldin, and Annis, 1993). The Erickson (1986) survey showed that this kind of educational event was, nevertheless, offered by over one-third of the institutions surveyed (p. 186). Specificity, practicality, relevance, involvement, and assessment must be the keynotes if educational events are to make a positive impact in the academic community.

Leadership: Senior Administrators

The category dealing with the leadership of senior administrators ranked sixth (aggregate mean, 25.85) for the U.S. group and third (27.06) for the Canadian. The four items measured are largely concerned with creating an environment which values and supports teaching. They suggest ways administrators can provide, through the use of language and action, "symbolic leadership" in reshaping the institutional culture so that teaching becomes a vital, valued activity (Green, 1990, pp. 48-51). Strong leadership can be highly influential in enhancing the status of teaching and initiating teaching improvement policies and programs:

> Deans and academic vice-presidents can cause things to happen—planting ideas, nurturing them, soliciting support from faculty leaders, and pushing ideas through an often tortuous route of dialogue and revision until these ideas are ultimately owned by the affected groups. In other words, in academia, leaders . . . can influence the organizational culture to produce change. (Green, 1990, p. 46)

The item in this category with the highest teaching improvement potential according to both U.S. and Canadian respondents (ranking 11th and 10th, respectively) was "teaching improvement activities given high visibility by the senior administration in order to illustrate their importance." By actively promoting developmental activities, senior administrators send a clear message that the institution both expects effective instruction and will provide faculty with the means to achieve it. The possibilities for action here go beyond lip service. Senior administrators can circulate memos and announcements about instructional development opportunities, make sure they are included on meeting agendas, and urge involvement at a number of levels. They can let nonacademic administrators know that activities related to teaching should be a priority in budgetary considerations and in the provision of support services. They can thus help create an organization which puts its educational mission at the center of its activities.

The less action-oriented items in this category were seen as having a smaller potential impact on teaching. Canadian respondents expressed moderate confidence in the improvement potential of senior administrators publicly articulating the importance of teaching (rank, 13), but U.S. respondents had relatively little confidence in this item (rank, 28). Because the movement to enhance teaching in higher education is newer and less widespread in Canada, administrators' public pronouncements about the importance of teaching may have a greater impact here than in the United States where such statements have been commonplace for a longer period of time.

Similarly, U.S. respondents had relatively less confidence in the potential impact of senior administrators emphasizing the supportive link between research and teaching (rank, 27) than did the Canadians (rank, 19). The two groups reported similar levels of confidence in senior administrators stimulating effective teaching by fostering pride in the institution (rank, 25 for both).

Clearly, senior administrators have an important role to play in establishing the status of teaching within the institutional environment. The survey results suggest that demonstrations of support may have a greater impact in the early stages of a teaching improvement program, when important attitudinal and behavioral changes have not yet occurred. The sustained and active involvement of senior administrators is an important component of a comprehensive teaching improvement strategy.

Structure and Organization

This category ranked only seventh (aggregate mean, 25.57) in the U.S. survey and fifth in the Canadian (26.61). The two respondent groups closely agreed on the relative potential of all but one item in this category. Notably, an institutional center to promote teaching and learning received a high level of support from both U.S. and Canadian groups (ranked fourth and third, respectively). There was clear preference for a center over a faculty committee on teaching which ranked in the lowest quartile.

Table 4 details the existing structures reported in the surveys. Canadian post-secondary institutions have proportionately fewer teaching centers, but many respondents indicated that more are being planned. These results may be a reflection of the fact that the teaching improvement movement gained momentum earlier in the United States than in Canada. Indications are that these structural differences will disappear over time.

An instructional development center, given adequate resources, has the potential to make a positive impact on the quality of university teaching and learning through the establishment of a sustained, multifaceted program of interventions, such as those described throughout this paper by the authors. Personal observation leads us to postulate that development committees can carry out good work, but that they rely heavily on the availability of volunteer efforts by imaginative and dedicated faculty, and many such committees find it difficult to sustain viable programs and to closely monitor their effectiveness as energies ebb and flow over time. Does the instructional development program organized by a *center* enjoy greater success on a campus characterized by a rather centralized culture or institutional climate? Are *faculty-initiated* programs particularly effective in settings where decentralization dominates the campus culture? Do successful *centers* take into account the campus culture, the campus climate, in determining priorities and program design? These issues should be considered when determining the applicability of our findings to a given milieu.

Only one organizational item revealed a divergence of opinion between the national groups. The involvement of faculty in periodic, comprehensive reviews of academic programs for the purpose of improving instruction (ranked 24th in the United States) was seen to have a relatively modest potential to improve teaching. Canadian respondents judged this strategy more favorably (14th). The culture of the university is such that faculty are, in fact, often involved in academic program review: periodic reviews of all faculty were carried out in almost 75% of all post-secondary institutions as reported by Erickson (1986). Yet our U.S. respondents accord this widespread practice relatively low priority as a means to improve teaching.

Teaching awards have long been a common means of recognizing outstanding teaching in universities across the United States (Erickson, 1986, p. 189). Yet this item ranks near the bottom of the list for its potential to improve teaching in both the U.S. and Canadian surveys. The item was also at the bottom of a survey list in an earlier Canadian study (Schulz, 1988). Why? Perhaps it is due to the very nature of the awards. They are presented to accomplished individuals in academe as a means of publicly recognizing outstanding achievement rather than as a broad-based incentive for teaching improvement.

Many instructional developers promote teaching awards and believe the prizes and associated ceremonies have a role to play in terms of public acknowledgment of teaching excellence by the university. But, at the same time, it is clear that our respondents have no illusions concerning the awards, which do not, in themselves, constitute an effective strategy to improve the teaching of significant numbers of faculty. Note, however, that the authors have not explored the potential of "teaching awards" which are associated specifically with tangible rewards, such as the provision of additional human resources (e.g., teaching assistants) to winners. Nor have we considered innovative alternatives such as group, divisional, or departmental awards to recognize collective teaching program excellence.

The survey results serve to emphasize the importance of establishing and supporting an instructional development center with a mandate to promote instruction and relegate practices — such as academic program reviews, teaching committee work, and awards — to roles of secondary importance.

Developmental Resources

The four survey items grouped under the title of "Developmental Resources" yielded a ranking of eighth in both the U.S. and Canadian surveys (aggregate means 24.78 and 25.75). Two items concerning the availability of *human* resources to support teaching scored fairly high while the two items concerning the availability of *print* resources to improve teaching scored very near the bottom of the list of 36 items. (Human resources include mentoring programs and expert consultation. Print resources include newsletters, articles, and libraries of materials.) Some instructional development centers also invest in multi-media and computer-based materials, but the potential of this type of resource was not, unfortunately, measured in our international survey.

Mentoring programs, which include such activities as peer consultation and faculty support systems for new professors, ranked sixth in the U.S. survey and seventh in the Canadian survey. Seldin's international survey of faculty developers in 110 colleges and universities ranked the item "master teachers or senior faculty working with new instructors" most effective among six practices designed to improve instruction (Shackelford, et al., 1993, p. 11).

Current interest in mentoring activities for new faculty is widespread. Mentorship programs aim to "help new faculty better understand an institution's goals and objectives and get them started on activities designed to meet these goals" (Weimer & Lenze, 1991, p. 324). More specifically, new faculty often approach their mentors with questions regarding course planning, classroom problems, teaching styles and techniques, grading, student ratings, and institutional policies with respect to tenure and promotion (Wilfrid Laurier University, 1993a, 1993b). Some authors speculate that the movement to introduce mentorship programs for new faculty stems from discontent over the lack of collegiality in academe (Weimer & Lenze, 1991). Mentorship programs are designed to share expertise and advice in an open and nonthreatening manner. As such, they typify the spirit of today's faculty development movement–an effort characterized by collegiality, cooperation, and a willingness to communicate ideas on university teaching and learning. Although instructional developers see great potential for mentorship programs in support of new faculty, and participants report high levels of satisfaction, there has been no sustained effort to measure program impact in terms of modified teaching practices and student learning outcomes (Weimer & Lenze, 1991).

Availability of expert consultation services (on the subject of, for example, course planning, constructing tests, and developing teaching skills) for the improvement of instruction ranked 14th in the U.S. survey. This item was 11th in the Canadian survey. The surveys did not take into account different approaches to consultation, different models of consultation, and the recent evolution of consultation services. The individual experiences of respondents with specific models of consultation may have had a significant impact on their responses. Erickson's survey (1986) showed that expert consultation on these particular matters was particularly prevalent in the public universities and professional schools (p. 187). The availability of expert consultation with a view to improving teaching increased during the last decade, but again in this case the research on effectiveness has focused on client and consultant satisfaction rather than tangible teaching and learning outcomes (Weimer & Lenze, 1991).

Items regarding the circulation to faculty of newsletters and articles pertinent to teaching improvement the accessibility of a professional library concerned with instructional methodology, teaching skills and the psychology of learning ranked 32nd and 36th. The rankings of these items were also very low on the Canadian survey (30th and 35th). Erickson's survey (1986) showed that about 40% of all post-secondary institutions surveyed had professional libraries and over 45% circulated newsletters and articles (p. 189). Apparently these common practices of providing print resources do not, as isolated items, enjoy the confidence of faculty developers (many of whom are, no doubt, newsletter editors) as a preferred means to improve teaching. Perhaps the potential impact of print resources, the usefulness of print resources, can be appreciated only when seen as a part of a comprehensive faculty development program: a professor may benefit from the print resource once motivated by a discussion with a consultant regarding his student ratings or her videotaped teaching sample. At any rate, it is clear that our respondents favor human resources over print resources as a means of improving teaching.

Summative Evaluation of Instruction

Summative evaluation of instruction refers to assessment of teaching performance for administrative purposes pertaining to personnel decisions such as contract renewal, tenure and promotion, and program planning. For both American and Canadian respondent groups, this category ranked ninth and last with aggregate means of 22.78 and 22.47, respectively.

It is important to note that while the policies and programs described in this category are not designed to have a *direct* impact on the quality of teaching, they are inextricably tied to employment policies and practices, a category deemed highly important by respondents. Teaching effectiveness can be appropriately rewarded only if reliable methods of evaluating teaching are in place. The indirect impact of summative evaluation practices on teaching improvement efforts is, therefore, considerable. The lack of a clear, operative, and dependable framework for carrying out summative evaluation may lead to faculty cynicism and compromise the outcomes of instructional development activities.

The summative evaluation practice seen to have the most potential for improving teaching was the review of course materials as part of university review procedures, although the relative ranking of this item was low for both groups: 26th for the American respondents and 29th for the Canadian respondents. Preparing an annual report of one's teaching accomplishments also received a low ranking: 29th for the U.S. group and 33rd for the Canadian group. However, these practices should not be overlooked when planning a comprehensive teaching improvement program. By establishing review mechanisms to assess educational practices, the institution is demonstrating that it cares about the quality of instruction and that faculty effectiveness in this area will be recognized.

Classroom observation by peers and end-of-term student ratings of instruction, both for summative purposes, were among the lowest-ranked items for both groups, ranging from 32 to 36. Again, this does not mean that those concerned with improving teaching should underestimate the potential impact of these activities on teaching improvement efforts. Student ratings of instruction in particular enjoy widespread use in universities and colleges in the United States and Canada (reported by Erickson, 1986, and Donald and Saroyan, 1991, to be around 95% of institutions in both countries). While research has demonstrated that student ratings have little direct effect on improving instruction when used for summative purposes (Cohen, 1980, 1990), they nonetheless play an important role in the creation of an institutional climate which recognizes and rewards effective teaching. A summative evaluation system built on fairness, reliability, and careful attention to research on the subject provides incentives for faculty to strive for teaching excellence and must surely be a part of efforts to enhance teaching in higher education.

Conclusion

Surveys of instructional/faculty development role players in the United States and Canada offer new perspectives on teaching improvement practices in post-secondary institutions in these neighbouring countries. The survey instrument asked respondents to express their degree of confidence in the teaching improvement potential of the individual questionnaire items. The results do not, then, actually measure the tangible outcomes of the various elements of an instructional development program, nor do they directly assess the impact of institutional policy and academic leadership. But the survey results provide considerable insight into the perspectives of key role players in the faculty development enterprise in higher education. As such, it is hoped that interested parties will find this information valuable in providing data to turn to when building, assessing, or modifying an institutional faculty development plan and when searching for ways to support teaching through organizational change and administrative initiatives.

The surveys showed a relatively high degree of consistency in thinking, although there were notable exceptions, between the American respondents and their Canadian counterparts. One way of comparing and contrasting the results of the two surveys is to review the relative rankings of the individual items. Fully eight items were among the top ten rankings for both groups who also named the same six items as the least-preferred.

This convergence of views is most notable in top-ranked items which represent key aspects of institutional policy, academic leadership, and instructional development structure. Improvements in the reward system, having deans and department chairpersons who recognize and foster the importance of the teaching function, and the existence of a teaching center are seen by respondents as the most promising avenues to improved instruction.

Agreement between the groups was not consistent across all items, however. U.S. respondents have much more confidence in grants to faculty for teaching innovation. Why do Canadian faculty developers have relatively little faith in the potential of this type of grant? Could it be that Canadian faculty are less motivated by grant programs, that the availability of increased financial resources does not constitute a key factor in improving instruction in the Canadian context? Clearly, the use and outcomes of teaching improvement grants bears further investigation.

Canadians feel that faculty review of programs have a greater potential to improve instruction than do the U.S. respondents. A close, comparative look at structured instructional program review in both countries could reveal the causes of this difference in point of view. The importance of teaching being made public by senior administrators is also seen to have much more potential to improve teaching by the Canadian respondent group. Senior administrators in U.S. universities have been, perhaps, more vocal than their Canadian counterparts in their public declarations in support of the teaching mission in higher education. Have the U.S. faculty developers responding to our survey become disillusioned by public posturing, immune to rhetoric unsupported by resources and action?

The different confidence level expressed by the two respondent groups on some dimensions raise intriguing questions which merit further study. Are there differences in cultures, organizational structures, experiences, or academic traditions in the two countries which would account for the varying perceptions of the respondents? Differences like these and others noted throughout this report reinforce the view that there is no single, correct blueprint for improving teaching and that strategies must be sensitive to local conditions and needs.

This article was structured to reflect the relative rankings of the nine categories defined by the researchers. The most significant findings with respect to the categories are observed at the extremes of their rankings. The two mostly-highly ranked categories for both U.S. and Canadian groups were "Leadership of Deans and Department Chairs" and "Employment Policies and Practices." Both groups also had the least confidence in the teaching improvement potential of "Developmental Resources" and "Summative Evaluation of Instruction."

The fact that "Summative Evaluation" ranked so poorly, coupled with the high ranking for "Employment Policies and Practices," points to a major issue for instructional developers and others concerned with improving university teaching: how can we ensure that institutional policies recognize, support, and reward effective teaching if teaching is not carefully scrutinized and evaluated by means of recognized, fair procedures adopted by the academic community? Surely, this question calls for further discussion.

The scope of this article does not allow a report on other important findings useful to teaching improvement planners and practitioners. Future articles will deal with comparisons based on such variables as institution size and structure and respondent role.

Colleges and universities in Canada and the United States continue to search for effective ways to improve the quality of instruction in higher education. As resources become more and more scarce and pressures to produce evidence of positive educational outcomes increase, faculty developers and academic leaders must make judicious choices with respect to the programs and policies they foster in an attempt to improve university teaching and learning. This article lays out a panoply of possibilities based on experience, opinion, and intuition, but there remains much trial and research to be carried out if we are to be confident that our teaching improvement energies are well spent.

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Deepening and Broadening the Dialogue About Teaching

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Although there has been a resurgence of interest in college teaching in recent years, it is important to deepen and broaden that interest. The dialogue can be deepened by reflecting more on learning, particularly the fundamental learning paradigms which provide the basis for alternative teaching strategies: training and coaching, lecturing and explaining, inquiry and discovery, and groups and teams. The dialogue can be broadened by reconnecting the discussion to major issues in curriculum planning and assessment.

For those who work in faculty development and particularly for those who have done so over many years, it is gratifying to see a renewed interest in teaching and the elevation of its importance. In Ernest Boyer's *Scholarship Reconsidered* (1990), the best-selling publication of the Carnegie Foundation for the Advancement of Teaching, teaching is no longer thought of as an activity to be placed over against research, but is conceptualized as one of the forms of *scholarship*. Faculty developers, bearing a variety of titles and playing a wide range of roles, are fully engaged in an ongoing dialogue with those who seek their help in the continuous improvement of teaching.

Unfortunately, the dialogue about teaching is too often superficial, focusing on techniques and remedies that lack grounding in solid theory. To deepen the dialogue about teaching, it is valuable to step back from teaching and ask: What is known about *learning*? The answer is "very much," and there is not just one theory but many. The theories, which often appear in educational psychology textbooks oddly detached from the real-world tasks of the classroom, are nonetheless valuable and a primary resource for anyone who wants to deepen the dialogue about teaching.

It is useful to think of what is known about learning in terms of somewhat separate and distinct paradigms, ways of looking at the world of learning. One might, of course, derive any number of categories and configurations for thinking about learning, but over the years I have settled on five that are separate and different enough to warrant the designation "paradigm." For each of these paradigms I have created a corresponding name for a "teaching strategy" based on that paradigm. The strategies and paradigms are as follows:

STRATEGY	PARADIGM
Training and Coaching Developing basic and advanced skills by using clear objectives, breaking instruction into steps, and reinforcing progress	**Behavioral Psychology** Based on the findings of behavioral psychology, particularly operant conditioning
Lecturing and Explaining Conveying information, explaining concepts, theories, and ideas so that they can be understood and remembered	Cognitive Psychology Based on the findings of cognitive psychology about attention, information processing and memory
Inquiry and Discovery Stimulating critical and creative thinking, problem-solving, and reasoning	**Psychology of Thinking** Based on aspects of cognitive psychology and philosophy related to thinking processes
Groups and Teams Facilitating learning through group activities and team projects	**Group Communication Theory** Based on the research from speech communication on-task and process behavior in groups
Experience and Reflection Helping students to reflect on their experience in work, service, or travel settings	**Holistic Learning** Based on brain research and holistic learning theory plus counseling psychology principles

The training and coaching strategy is based on behavioral learning theory, the familiar and longstanding idea of operant conditioning growing out of the work of Watson (1934), Thorndike (1921), and B.F. Skinner (1969). The idea is simple enough: a response (in this case the student's behavior) will be repeated or not repeated, depending on the consequences to that response. Although often discounted by faculty who have "had enough" of behaviorism, it is still an important — perhaps even fundamental — paradigm for the dialogue about teaching. Out of it comes the important idea of shaping — guiding students in successive approximations (small steps) towards a desirable goal through the appropriate use of feedback. Most teaching that involves the development of skills — writing, basic math, music, foreign language, and almost all physical skills — can be made more effective and efficient through the careful employment of the behavioral paradigm. Furthermore, the basic exchange of communication between students and teacher in any classroom discussion is governed by behavioral principles. What the student says is both content and behavior, and the way the faculty member responds is feedback. The way the teacher responds will shape the nature and extent of future responses, and through modeling, will shape the responses of others. The behavioral paradigm is there working all the time, and good teachers are aware of how to use it.

Another paradigm is what has come to be called "cognitive psychology," and it provides a sound base for the lecturing and explaining strategy. In the late 1950s a group of psychologists who had grown unhappy with the "simplistic" explanations of the behaviorists wanted to know more about what goes on in people's heads when they attend to, process, and remember information. Breaking away from the behaviorist idea that one can only study external behaviors, they began to develop models of covert mental process through a series of clever experiments that enabled them to make inferences about these processes. The result today is a coherent paradigm used to describe attention, information processing, and memory (Sanford, 1985). For anyone who lectures — and most college teachers do — it is important to understand what goes on in the heads of the students who are trying to pay attention to, understand, and remember the information that is being sent their way. Some of the useful findings are as follows: We have a limited capacity for attention, but we are good at focusing if we are told what is important. We tend to look for the general features of new information and relate that to information we already have, and the ease with which we do that depends on our previous experience, the schema we already have in place, and the "cognitive complexity" of what we are trying to comprehend. We remember almost nothing unless we convert it into long-term memory through some special storage processes known as mnemonic devices. The dialogue about lecturing (the most frequently used and abused teaching strategy), surely needs to move beyond "presentation skills" to a deeper discussion of what happens when people attend to, process, and remember information.

Most college teachers hope that their students will learn to think, but they themselves, odd as this may seem, have not thought much about what thinking is or the conditions under which it takes place. Another group of cognitive psychologists, aided by philosophers and others with broad interests in "thinking skills," have studied these processes as still another way of learning. Interestingly, there are many types of thinking — critical, dialogical, creative — involving many different kinds of processes — induction, deduction, problem-solving, decision-making — that make different uses of language, ranging from positivistic to metaphorical (Beyer, 1987). When human beings try to think, it is not always a pretty process to watch; it is something akin to horses falling in the steeple chase. For example, we tend to make few rather than numerous hypotheses, and we tend to seek only evidence that confirms *our* hypotheses, rather than seeking appropriate disconfirming evidence as well. When we make bad decisions, we tend to perpetuate them, following them with more bad decisions, rather than cutting our losses. We get terribly confused about how we are using language, and if our cognitive resources get overtaxed, we simply quit. One thing that is known for sure about thinking is that it is learned through practice. If students are to learn to think, classrooms need to be arranged in such a way as to foster active thinking processes. This means providing a safe environment where students' ideas can be set forth, shared, and shaped under the critical guidance of a skilled mentor who knows how to think in a particular field of study. This is why the strategy is called "inquiry and discovery."

People also learn as a result of their participation in groups. The literature on groups and teams, found mostly in the field of speech communication, provides still another paradigm of how people learn. This kind of learning involves not only ideas, but also what educators call the "affective domain," the realm of opinions, attitudes, and beliefs, sometimes referred to as feelings and values. The study of the intentional use of groups for learning grows out of the early work of Kurt Lewin and his associates who were involved in establishing the National Training Laboratory (Golembiewski and Blumberg, 1970), the work of Carl Rogers (1970) in group therapy, and the work of E.L. Moreno (Hare, 1976) in sociodrama. Those who have studied groups know that communication in groups takes place at both a task (the job to be done) level and a process (social needs) level, that members play specific roles in the group, that groups become (or fail to become) cohesive, and that groups go through stages over time. Groups tend to generate many more ideas than individuals, and there is usually more acceptance of outcomes when they are derived through a group process. Perhaps the most important finding is that people actually change as a result of their participation in groups, and that attitudes and values — known to be deeply rooted in our natural group affiliations — are most likely to change when they are reexamined through a group process (Goldberg & Larson, 1975). Groups have their drawbacks — the tendency of certain members not to do their part (social loafing) and an inclination toward conformity (group think) — but for certain kinds of learning, groups provide the right communication mechanism to reach the heart and soul.

Not all learning takes place in classrooms. Increasingly today, faculty find themselves engaged as the mentors of students in service-learning projects; cooperative education work experience; overseas travel, study or service; and internships and field studies. All of this has come to be referred to as experience-based learning and involves still another learning paradigm. Do people learn from experience? Most do and, alas, some never seem to; but in educational settings it is important to understand what experience-based learning is and how it can be enhanced through a systematic reflection process. A paradigm to support the holistic learning that undergirds experience-based learning has emerged more recently and grows out of new research on the brain (Hart, 1983). Like the rest of the human body, the brain has evolved, and the stages of that evolution are recapitulated in the development of the human embryo, where the later cerebral cortex is only slowly added to an earlier "mammalian" and still earlier "reptilian" brain, three parts that, in adulthood, function in uneasy tension. What is most interesting about this brain is not so much its power to reason — which we have seen does not come naturally to the species — but its ability to take in, process, and make meaning of experience.

Through a process known as "encephalization," the species came to develop an unusually large cerebral cortex relative to body size; so humans can be thought of as "brain freaks" just as giraffes are "neck freaks" and elephants are "nose freaks." The purpose of this encephalization, it is believed, is for language; and what language is for, contrary to widespread belief, is not so much communication as the interpretation of experience. Humans are equipped with a highly sophisticated apparatus for seeing, hearing, and *interpreting* what goes on around them, as their key survival mechanism. Learning, so it is argued by holistic theorists, arises naturally from experience; it sticks to us, like mud to our shoes. David Kolb (1984) describes it as a cyclical process of going out to concrete experience, engaging in reflective observation, retreating to engage in abstract conceptualization, actively experimenting with new concepts, and returning to concrete experience to test those new concepts. Contrary to the model used by most academics, which might be characterized as "go apply what you have learned," experience-based learning seems to take place more through a process that Donald Schön (1983) calls "reflection-in-action." For faculty, the key role is that of reflector, and for the reflection part of experience-based learning one can turn to some of the less-complicated counseling theories to learn about how to help students reflect on their experience. Usually this involves helping them to identify problems and see missed opportunities, listening as they describe what is happening to them, and guiding them in developing preferred scenarios and taking steps to carry them out. Above all it is a process of helping them to make meaning through telling their story.

If deepening the dialogue about teaching is the goal, this deeper conversation will occur when we talk with faculty in increasingly sophisticated ways about learning, when we help them to distinguish among different kinds of learning, and encourage them to select teaching strategies based on learning paradigms. Of course this means that we ourselves need to be well-prepared to carry on that dialogue. For a much fuller discussion of each of the teaching strategies and learning paradigms, and for the references to support the ideas presented above, please see *Better Teaching, More Learning: Strategies for Success in Postsecondary Settings* (Davis, 1993). So much for deepening the dialogue.

What about *broadening* the dialogue? Improving teaching is only one variable in the effort to improve the overall quality of higher education. Most of the discussion of faculty development focuses on the improvement of teaching and often occurs in splendid isolation from the important issues of curriculum content and assessment of student learning outcomes. What appears to be developing are three separate literatures, three sets of professional associations (or subsidiary efforts within associations) which deal separately and sometimes exclusively with curriculum planning, improving teaching, and assessment. Much of this activity and the emerging literature is quite valuable, but it is compartmentalized and specialized.

For example, AAHE has sponsored extremely valuable annual conferences on assessment, and there is now a growing and very useful literature, including Alexander Astin's two volumes, *Achieving Educational Excellence* (1985) and *Assessment for Excellence* (1991), and Trudy Banta's new volume *Making a Difference* (1988). The Association of American Colleges leads the way in curriculum planning with the challenging three-volume set, *The Challenge of Connecting Learning, Structure and Coherence: Reports from the Field* (1991). There are valuable books, including Jerry Gaff's *New Life for the College Curriculum* (1991) and Robert Diamond's *Designing and Improving Courses and Curricula in Higher Education* (1989), as well as the useful journal, *Liberal Education*. Then there is the work of POD Network, along with many new books on improving teaching, including Stephen Brookfield's *The Skillful Teacher* (1990), Joseph Lowman's *Mastering the Techniques of Teaching* (1990), and the recently reissued version of the now classic *Teaching Tips*, by Wilbert McKeachie (1994). We now see emerging what appears to be three separate movements, not unlike the development of the separate academic disciplines, with all of the attendant hazards of conceptual isolation and provincialism. Ironically, these separate movements, with their own advocates, meetings, and scholars, mirror a similar kind of fragmentation in the disciplines and professions which many of us, in our own work, strive to overcome.

What most of us know, however, is that the problems we confront in improving the quality of education at local institutions seldom come in the tidy separate packages of curriculum, teaching, and assessment. These problems are closely connected and their solutions are interrelated. Even worse, when these activities are *perceived* as separate, efforts to improve are often superficial and ineffective. Much of the local resistance to assessment, for example, arises because faculty have trouble understanding how it is related to teaching or curriculum planning; they see it as a matter of compliance, rather than as a useful activity for gaining access to information that would be valuable in making decisions about how to modify the curriculum or improve teaching. Likewise, curriculum planning — resulting in genuinely creative new ideas — often takes place without much thought about what will be required to develop the kind of teaching needed to implement these ideas or the kinds of assessment needed to evaluate the effectiveness of the new curriculum. Similarly, teaching improvement programs are often undertaken quite apart from curriculum planning and assessment efforts, which on some campuses are even located in separate offices. Actually, these three activities are inseparable in practice.

Recently, the College of Law at the University of Denver redesigned a course entitled "The Lawyering Process." This course is required of all first-year students (about 350 day and evening) and is designed to introduce the students to the study of the three substantive areas of law (case law, legislation, and administrative law) and to the skills students will need to work in a law firm. To complement the large lecture format, students are divided into simulated law firms (20 students each), headed by a senior partner (a practicing attorney) and assisted by a junior partner (an upper division student assistant), a client, a writing consultant, and a librarian consultant. The firms are paired, plaintiff and defendant, around problem cases, which are used for developing practice skills throughout the course.

Some of the faculty on the team left, and as others replaced them, they wanted to reexamine the course, and in particular to address student complaints. The course improvement process began with assessment activities, in which faculty began to articulate systematically the strengths and weaknesses of the course, and students conveyed through focus groups their perspectives on what they actually thought the course was about and how it was delivered. Interestingly, when students were asked to articulate their concerns, they could do so quite fluently; but when they were requested to state what the course was about and how it was organized, they stumbled. They didn't see the structure that the faculty thought was there. As course consultant, I could play the role of outside observer in asking questions that gave the faculty, also in attendance, a better idea of what improvements might be necessary.

The curriculum planning phase involved a rethinking of objectives, reordering of topics, and reconsideration of course materials, and testing and grading techniques. The "schematic" for the course, complete with schedules of activities for lectures and law firms, was completely revised, and the content themes of the law — case law, administrative law, and legislation — were made more visible.

Once the content of the course was agreed upon, interest shifted to teaching strategies and the training needed for this "cast of thousands" (more than 50 people) to make sure that the course was actually delivered as intended. Keeping everyone on the same page and in their assigned roles was not easy. Because the changes in the course were substantial, there was genuine interest on the part of the faculty to find out whether the changes made a difference — thus returning (full circle) to the assessment phase to find out how the course was received this year. Curriculum planning, the improvement of teaching, and assessment are and ought to be, as illustrated here, integrated processes.

The University of Denver is engaging in a new experiment to reunite these three activities. The name of the Center for Faculty Development has been changed to the Center for Academic Quality and Assessment of Student Learning, and the Director of the Center has been renamed "Special Assistant to the Provost." The Director's responsibility is to work with the faculty and administration broadly across the University on matters of curriculum planning, teaching improvement, and assessment. The colleges, schools, and departments are expected to own and shape their own activities, while the Director serves as a roving consultant, which the University provides (free) to these units, assisting them, wherever possible, in enhancing the quality of what they do to make it their best. Each unit establishes planning committees, faculty development committees, and assessment activities appropriate to their units. Sometimes the Director is invited to make brief presentations, sit with committees, assist curriculum or self-study committees, or, as in the case of the "Lawyering Process," help redesign an important course.

If it is true that we need to broaden as well as deepen the dialogue about teaching, then there are some interesting implications and opportunities for the POD Network. Certainly we need to continue to serve as a valuable forum for discussing organizational techniques for effective faculty development while seeking ways to talk more frequently and more seriously about what learning actually is. In doing this, we may also want to reach out laterally to initiate (again, more frequently and more seriously) discussions of the content of the curriculum and the assessment of student learning. Leaving the curriculum solely in the hands of disciplinary specialists, without benefit of informed reflection on the curricular planning process, is dangerous; it is perhaps even more dangerous to leave assessment in the hands of measurement specialists who may not appreciate, as much as we might wish, the complexities of the instructional process and the intricacies of the curriculum. In doing all of this POD will surely want to maintain its focus on the development of faculty, in the many ways that faculty develop through their careers but in the context of these broader movements with which there can be profitable dialogue.

What we all value ultimately, as members of the POD Network, is the continuous improvement of the quality of education provided for students. Surely this means continuing to work with faculty through the myriad of organizational techniques available to us; but it also means finding ways to deepen and broaden the dialogue about teaching, tying our efforts more directly to learning paradigms and connecting what we do, more consciously, to parallel movements to improve curriculum planning and assessment.

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Assessment and Values: A New Religion?

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Since the mid-1980s, outcomes assessment has been mandated for most institutions of higher education by governing boards, state legislatures, and accrediting bodies. As the movement has progressed, there has been a shift from summative assessment, primarily useful for purposes of accountability, to formative assessment that has a better potential to improve teaching and learning. Nevertheless, the issue of accountability focuses attention on the summative model, creating a danger that units responsible for curriculum and faculty development will not discover the value of assessment for their work. Perhaps the least known aspect of outcomes assessment is its importance as a vehicle for unveiling inherent institutional values and invigorating values inquiry. In both content and process, outcomes assessment is central to values in higher education.

As a member of the task force charged with developing a comprehensive outcomes assessment plan for West Virginia University, one of my responsibilities was to visit academic units to explain our project and consult with program representatives who were developing assessment plans in their disciplines. In one such meeting with members of my own department, a colleague commented, "I've known you a long time, and I don't understand what's going on with you. You act as if assessment is some kind of new religion or something."

That comment reflects some of the major pitfalls for assessment on any campus. First, it reveals the tension between faculty members who feel they are being held accountable for student learning and administrators who are requiring that accountability. My colleague didn't understand how I, a fellow faculty member, could be enthusiastic about a demand for accountability that came as a top down imperative from administration.

Learning outcomes assessment cannot be done effectively without some conversation about what goes on in classrooms and some consensus about instructional goals. The banner of academic freedom is often waved in the face of such threats to faculty autonomy. A major review of the assessment movement cites administrators who proclaim, "The beauty of assessment is that it's the best prompt in years for faculty development" but who cautiously add that faculty development is "a term I can't use out loud here" (Hutchings & Marchese, 1990). Faculty who are not open to instructional development activities will certainly resist outcomes assessment.

Another problem reflected in my colleague's complaint is the conflict of values that many faculty members perceive in their institutions. Assessment came to WVU in the wake of a decade-long emphasis on research. My colleague is not actually concerned about suddenly shifting gears; the rewards for research productivity remain securely in place, and he knows that it's to his professional advantage to maintain his research agenda and marginalize teaching. However, when the institution sends one message to its faculty in promotion and tenure guidelines and other incentives that privilege research and then asks them to expend additional time and energy on teaching to develop models of outcomes assessment, it is not surprising that there's a strong element of cynicism. The new religion of assessment is assumed to be just one more higher education fad that will eventually disappear.

In fact, the conflict of values is a major problem because unless a campus climate for professional discussions of student instruction is already present, efforts to promote outcomes assessment are doomed to failure. My colleague sees assessment as something external to his role in the University, and that view is not only fatal to assessment efforts, it is reinforced when assessment is solely the province of administrative units. One of the important lessons learned from early models is that assessment is most successful when integrated in the teaching and learning situation.

The movement toward more formative assessment models is a result of that lesson. With increasing emphasis on student portfolio analysis, classroom research studies, student interviews, and other qualitative approaches, outcomes assessment is moving out of the administrative domain and into the classroom.

Assessment and Institutional Values

In December 1992, the American Association of Higher Education's Assessment Forum published a document listing nine "Principles of Good Practice for Assessment of Student Learning" authored by national leaders in the theory and practice of outcomes assessment (Astin et. al., 1992). Most notable for purposes of this essay was the first principle:

> *The assessment of student learning begins with educational values.*
>
> Assessment is not an end in itself but a vehicle for educational improvement. Its effective practice, then, begins with and enacts a vision of the kinds of learning we most value for students and strive to help them achieve. Educational values should drive not only *what* we choose to assess but also *how* we do so. Where questions about educational mission and values are skipped over, assessment threatens to be an exercise in measuring what's easy, rather than a process of improving what we really care about. (Astin, et. al., 1992)

The ideals in this statement could make outcomes assessment seem even more formidable for fledgling educators trying to develop institutional or program-level plans. But what we discovered through trial and error at WVU is that when assessment is approached with integrity (i.e., not merely as an exercise in meeting external demands), highlighting values is an inherent part of the process. Our experience over the past four years indicates, I believe, some of the key elements in making assessment work for any institution.

Background

Assessment arrived at WVU, as at many institutions, through external mandates. In 1990, the University was faced with preparing for its decennial accreditation review by the North Central Association of Colleges and Schools with a campus visit scheduled for the spring of 1994, a review that included the need for a comprehensive outcomes assessment plan for the institution. In addition, the state had formed a Higher Education Council on Assessment, and our Board of Trustees was planning to incorporate requirements for outcomes assessment in the program review process. In response to these pressures, the Provost asked his Assistant Vice President for Curriculum and Instruction to form a task force to develop a comprehensive plan for the University.

The Process

Who Does Assessment?

In naming the Assistant Vice President for Curriculum and Instruction at WVU to lead the task force, the Provost had implicitly opened the process to the development of a formative model. That is, by delegating the task to the administrative officer directly concerned with curriculum and instruction, the Provost had assumed that outcomes assessment would go beyond the realm of the collection of summative data that would be the natural province of the institutional research office.

While the director of that office was a member of the task force (for indeed, summative information is a necessary part of any comprehensive plan), the majority of the members were faculty actively involved in student instruction through directing special programs or as members of key faculty senate committees. Thus, as the group assembled to begin the task of developing a comprehensive assessment plan for the institution, the choice of personnel insured that the focus would be on the primary site of student instruction—the classroom.

How is assessment understood?

In forming the task force, a charge was developed that included underlying philosophic principles that provide a conceptual framework for outcomes assessment at WVU. Among the key points were four especially relevant to the shape of the plan for WVU:

- Faculty must be involved at all levels in the design, implementation, and evaluation of a student learning outcomes assessment plan;
- Assessment should be used to promote positive changes in institutional effectiveness, not just to find problems and weaknesses in programs;
- WVU should strive continually to improve the quality of instruction and institutional effectiveness;
- Assessment should focus on the broad area of student achievement and attitudes as these relate to content knowledge in majors, general education, and student development.

It is important to note that WVU's mission statement prioritizes the institution's commitment to providing "high quality programs of instruction at the undergraduate, graduate, and professional levels"; thus, the assessment initiative is not only rooted in the mission but can be seen as the quality control measure for our instructional efforts. In developing the conceptual framework for assessment, the University implicitly affirmed the value of student instruction. The institution that asks how outcomes assessment will be conducted on its campus and what the parameters of that process should be will necessarily identify what it values in that inquiry.

Interestingly, during the self-study conducted as preparation for our accreditation review two years after our assessment initiative was begun, we held a series of focus group interviews that affirmed the priority of instruction for faculty, confirming the value that had been unveiled in the assessment process. In his recent *What Matters in College?* (1993), Alexander Astin has shown that the orientation of institutions of higher education is not solely a matter of size or mission. An institution may have a strong research orientation, but faculty attitude is a more significant environmental factor for students. In our self-study process, we discovered that while our administration had been developing a strong research orientation in recent years for WVU, there was an underlying student orientation among faculty that was more indicative of institutional identity than had been assumed.

The faculty interest in student instruction as a primary value was confirmed when the task force assembled; one of the earliest requests of the group was assurance that central administration was serious about using this process to positively affect student learning. While none of us had the knowledge at the time to specify the assessment model we wanted to follow, I realize, in retrospect, that we were saying we were not interested in following a purely summative process, but we were more interested in formative assessment because of its potential to improve teaching and learning.

The congruence of our belief in the importance of formative assessment, coupled with the conceptual framework that affirmed this belief, enabled us to proceed without model confusion. If the principal players do not share this understanding of the goals and purposes of outcomes assessment at the institution, conflict may arise from a confusion about what assessment is or what it should accomplish on that particular campus.

How does it operate?

As noted, our plan evolved without any conscious awareness of different models but with a shared understanding of purposes and principles. Eventually, we discovered in the literature the model we had been following implicitly. It's important to note that while faculty assessment leaders may feel unsure of themselves because they are credentialed in specific disciplines unrelated to assessment, research indicates that most campus assessment leaders have neither training nor prior significant experience in assessment or measurement but have been educated principally in conferences and workshops (Johnson, Prus, Andersen & El-Khawas, 1991). Outcomes assessment is so integral to the teaching and learning process that most good teachers have an intuitive grasp of the process from their instructional experience and are well prepared to implement outcomes assessment in a more formal manner.

Since we were required to implement assessment at both the university-wide level (general education and student affective development) and the program level, our assessment initiative has had two broad components. In program-level outcomes assessment, we emphasize the autonomy of individual degree programs, and the major effort of the central group has been to provide development opportunities to familiarize faculty with outcomes assessment's processes and techniques.

However, before we began at the program level, the task force developed a statement of goals for undergraduate education at WVU through a review of our institutional mission statement, the statement of purpose of our general education curriculum, and the mission statements of our various colleges. We listed five goals that we then circulated to all faculty for review and comment. Their response provided confirmation that we had represented well the values of the University community. Most of the responses we received were praise for having focused our educational efforts so clearly, and the few suggestions were more semantic than substantive.

What seemed to be simply a preliminary step in the assessment process occupied the task force for more than a semester, but we understand, in retrospect, that in formulating these goals we were unveiling institutional values inherent in statements of mission and purpose. Hence, when we conducted a campus-wide conference on program-level assessment, we already had shared values among participants, and our discussion focused on ways to assess student learning. Beginning with "Is this what we all believe?" rather than "This is what you must do" seems to be a positive way to introduce assessment to faculty and avoid immediate resistance.

Even in the "doing" phase, there are ways to encourage dialogue and values inquiry. Rather than stipulate specific methods for programs, we have emphasized autonomy to encourage degree programs to develop assessment plans that will be meaningful in the discipline and helpful in instructional development. Since our focus has been formative, even those programs that rely on summative measures understand the importance of linking results to improvement.

For example, one of our professional programs assesses student learning principally through licensure examination results and surveys of graduates and their supervisors, asking both groups to identify strengths and weaknesses of specific skills that are developed in the curriculum. Although licensure results have been superb over the past ten years, and surveys indicated that all skills areas were considered adequate, one particular area was identified as less strong than others. As a result, the program initiated a review of the curriculum components related to that area.

Formative assessment does not simply mean using certain types of measures; it is an attitude that must permeate the entire process. It has informed the developing role of the task force, a group that in two years evolved into a more permanent assessment leadership group, the WVU Assessment Council. In keeping with our value of formation rather than information (my colleagues in engineering speak of being pro-active rather than re-active), the leadership group has focused on education of the University community about the assessment process, providing general workshops and meeting with individual schools, colleges, and departments to help them formulate their assessment plans. An informal assessment newsletter was begun to communicate information and maintain a positive attitude toward assessment throughout the University.

One lesson of our process has been that values are implicit in the choices made during the development of an assessment process in an institution, and a values orientation can help assessment leaders navigate unfamiliar terrain.

The Practice

Two projects at the university level are indicative of the ways assessment can (and should) invigorate values inquiry in higher education.

The first began very simply. The task force had spent a year deliberating assessment at WVU and needed to *do* something. With little knowledge and no prior experience, we initiated a longitudinal study of student experience based in the primary question, "What happens to students at WVU?" We had no agenda but felt that the general information we could acquire would be valuable as a preface to outcomes assessment. In addition to tracking students' academic progress (or lack of progress), we conduct annual interviews. In planning the interview protocol, we identify questions to which we'd like students' response. At least one question is designed to explore the differences (if any) between their values and ours.

For example, a problem we experience is student absence from class, especially among freshman and sophomores. Several internal studies have shown a strong correlation between failing grades and poor attendance. By asking students why they think undergraduates often fail to attend class, we learned not only that students were well aware of the problem but that underclassmen generally believe that class attendance is unrelated to grades. If we want to retain students, we now realize that we need to intervene to help them understand the value of class attendance. This information has helped shape our student orientation programs and policies.

We also used the interviews in planning our assessment of general education. Suspecting that most students were unaware of any intentional curriculum and saw the components of our general education program as simply a series of requirements, we asked, "How do you feel about having to take courses outside your major?" The results were surprising. Although we confirmed our assumption that students had no conception of a program with goals and objectives for learning, we also discovered, to our surprise, that students were not opposed to general education. Admittedly, most students are vocationally oriented, but they also appreciate the need to be more broadly educated in a rapidly changing society. By understanding their values, we are better able to define our own as an instructional faculty and, most importantly, communicate those values to our students more effectively.

Because our interviews indicated a need to raise student and faculty consciousness of learning goals, we implemented a classroom research project that aims to help both faculty and students understand the goals of general education and document learning with reference to those goals. At WVU, our general education program (known as the Liberal Studies Program or LSP) is composed of a group of distribution-based requirements taught in various degree programs. Our aim is to establish a descriptive profile of learning in the LSP while measuring student learning outcomes. In the process, we plan to improve delivery of the LSP. Since student learning in general education is less determined by content and curriculum design than by delivery (Astin, 1993), our faculty development/outcomes assessment project should lead directly to improvement.

Each semester, faculty participants in this project identify one or two LSP goals that they believe are met in their courses. They plan modest research projects to assess learning in relation to those goals. One of the most important exercises in values inquiry that developed from this project was the need to state specific learning goals for the LSP. From our experience with the statement of goals for undergraduate education, we realized that one of the problems in assessing the LSP was that the program had been instituted with a description of its ideals rather than concrete goals for learning. In translating that description into goals and asking faculty to review them in relation to their teaching, we indirectly engage faculty in examining the value of those objectives for learning.

The conversation among faculty participants and between individual faculty members and the project coordinator has been an exercise in values inquiry. In order to develop a classroom research project, participants had to ask themselves why they were designing their courses in specific ways and what they hoped to accomplish. In addition, one component of the project is surveying students about which goals were met in participating faculty members' classes. We tabulate those surveys for a profile of the class from the student perspective and invite faculty members to review and discuss the correlation between their perceptions of the learning goals accomplished and the perceptions of their students. Thus, we are presenting the program goals to students as values for learning and enhancing their understanding of the LSP as a total program.

This year, we added another component to the process of assessing learning in the LSP with a limited student portfolio pilot project. Twenty-five honors freshmen volunteered to participate in this project that involves an annual reflective essay on the LSP experience combined with course materials that support the essay and individual interviews.

One aspect of formative assessment that we've discovered in the past two years is that it's a more recursive than linear process. As we develop a knowledge base about student learning outcomes at WVU, we see other aspects of student learning that deserve investigation.

This process differs from our original assumptions about outcomes assessment.

The original charge to the Assessment Task Force implied that a complete assessment plan for the University would be established prior to implementation. We anticipated our charge would last two years, and then the work of the task force would be completed. When two years passed and we discovered that we had several projects ongoing and others developing from information learned in earlier projects, we wondered what we were doing wrong. We discovered that while the summative model is linear, formative evaluation is recursive. Answered questions lead to other questions.

The Future

The danger that assessment will indeed be some "new religion" in higher education that will lack currency once external pressures are lessened and administrative enthusiasm wanes is eliminated when the value of the process is experienced at the program and classroom level. If organizational developers use assessment to ask the questions that are appropriate for their institution, the value of outcomes assessment for program and faculty development will be evident and outcomes assessment will be institutionalized in existing structures and procedures.

Let me offer an example. Several years ago, the WVU Faculty Senate initiated a modest writing-across-the-curriculum venture. A discipline-specific writing requirement was instituted, and programs responded with course development. No means of evaluating the effect of this requirement was stipulated, but within several years anecdotal reports indicated trouble. Members of the Faculty Senate were demanding some review, and no one was sure what to do. Fortunately, the calls for review of these courses occurred three years after we'd begun working on assessment, and we immediately offered to assess the student outcomes and report to the Senate. Our assessment confirmed some of the problems that had been reported, pointed out some virtues that had not been noticed, but, most importantly, suggested specific action that could improve the situation.

Once faculty appreciate assessment as a process that supports and strengthens their efforts rather than view it as some intrusive arm of external agencies, outcomes assessment not only finds a home, it fulfills its potential to improve the academy.

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Academic Leaders and Faculty Developers: Creating an Institutional Culture That Values Teaching

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In recent years, a great deal has been said and written about the need to improve teaching in the academy, especially in large research universities. College presidents, national associations representing higher education, private foundations, and individual faculty scholars all have challenged faculty, chairs, deans, campus administrators, and faculty developers to work together to improve support for undergraduate teaching and learning (Bok, 1986; Bowen & Schuster, 1986; Boyer, 1987; Carnegie Foundation for the Advancement of Teaching, 1989; Diamond & Adam, 1993; Seldin & Associates, 1990). Despite such calls for collaborative efforts to improve undergraduate education, faculty developers still often feel alone in a milieu that does not value teaching and frequently perceive a lack of support from academic leaders, particularly the central administration. Administrators, on the other hand, often recognize the need to improve institutional support for teaching, but are at a loss as to how to effectively intervene to change the environment.

As a deputy provost and a director of a center for teaching, we have worked collaboratively over the past six years to achieve a common goal: to encourage a culture on campus that values teaching. While we would like to take credit for carefully planning all of the strategies that evolved as a result of our cooperative ventures, the truth is that most of them emerged as each moment of opportunity presented itself. In retrospect, however, we can identify some of the key strategies that have proven to be the catalysts for our institution's renewal in teaching. In this case study, we will describe the kinds of programs we've developed, identify some of the key strategies, summarize what we've learned throughout these six years, and describe the impact our efforts have had on our institution's commitment to excellence in teaching. We hope that some of what worked well for us can be applied by campus administrators and faculty developers on other campuses.

Institutional Context

The University of Massachusetts Amherst is the oldest and largest of the five University of Massachusetts campuses, enrolling over 23,000 students in a full spectrum of undergraduate, graduate, and professional programs. The campus characterizes itself, and is nationally ranked by Carnegie Classification as a Research I University. Its faculty are recipients of an array of prestigious honors and awards in research, and the University actively supports several resource agencies, including an Office of Research Affairs and a campus-wide Institute For Advanced Studies.

Over the last decade or so, while there was a quiet affirmation of high-quality teaching at the University, there were few special programs offered to assist faculty in this area. The campus's nationally recognized Clinic To Improve University Teaching and Center for Instructional Research and Improvement (CIRI) were established in the early 1970s and then closed during the budget cuts later in that decade. After 1978, there was only one agency left to assist instructors in teaching—the Audio-Visual Department.

During the mid 1980s, a series of events provided the springboard for renewed interest in teaching. As part of its accreditation review, the University conducted a self-study which called for more attention to teaching and learning. The Provost also appointed a new vice chancellor for academic affairs (who was later named deputy provost) and asked him to look at a constellation of issues related to undergraduate education. At the same time, the University was invited to submit a proposal for a Lilly Teaching Fellows Award Program to introduce untenured faculty to the profession of teaching. The combination of events could not have been better timed, and together they provided the stimulus for improving the climate for teaching.

Initiatives in Teaching and Learning

Between 1986 and 1994, we developed and refined a series of programs in ways that have allowed them to become embedded in the culture of the University. They included establishing a teaching fellows program, a "celebration of teaching" dinner, a center for teaching development, an annual teaching assistant orientation, and deans and chairs conference. In this section we will briefly describe each of those key programs as it developed, in chronological time.

Faculty Teaching Fellowships, Fall 1986. The teaching fellows program was funded for the first three years of its existence by the Lilly Endowment, but has been funded by the University for the last five years. It has also increased its scope by including not only tenure track junior faculty, but also faculty who have been awarded tenure in the previous three years. Teaching fellows do not receive any direct compensation but are provided with release time from their teaching, usually 50% of their total teaching commitment for an academic year, to participate in program activities. Fellows attend a biweekly "seminar on college teaching," work on a project for their home academic department (usually the development of a new course or the revision of an existing course), engage in an individual consultation process (e.g., class visits, videotaping, student feedback), and work with a senior faculty mentor.

Celebration of Teaching Dinner, Spring 1987. The annual Celebration of Teaching Dinner provides an occasion at which members of the University community across disciplines, departments, and ranks come together to publicly acknowledge and celebrate the importance of teaching. It is not an award program, but rather an event where faculty come to hear other faculty talk about their teaching. The most popular part of the program is the Teaching Fellows presentations, which deal either with memorable experiences faculty have had during their fellowship year or in their teaching career. The dinner consistently draws an audience of some 250 faculty and staff and has always had the provost or chancellor in attendance. Faculty from the departments of the teaching fellows are invited and usually attend in significant numbers. The dinner is also well attended by previous faculty teaching fellows, as well as Distinguished Teaching Award winners, winners of the Chancellor's Medal for outstanding research contributions, and deans, department heads, and chairs.

Center For Teaching, Fall 1988. The success of the teaching fellowship program and the associated celebration of teaching dinner enabled the University to assemble critical support among faculty in order to establish a Center For Teaching. The Center was approved by the University's Faculty Senate and opened in the Fall semester 1988. Since its inception, the Center has offered an ever-increasing range of resources and programs for enhancing teaching and learning. They include individual consultations, departmental consultations, workshops, seminars, conferences, teaching assistant training programs, annual award programs such as the Teaching Fellows Program and Faculty Grants For Teaching, materials on teaching development, and institutional participation in grants and research on teaching and faculty development.

Campus-Wide Teaching Assistant Orientation, Fall 1989. This day-long orientation is offered by the Center under the sponsorship of the Provost's Office and Graduate School. The agenda includes a panel of experienced TAs who share their perspective and advice on becoming a teaching assistant, department representatives who lead a departmental luncheon, and faculty who lead workshops on such topics as leading discussions, social and cultural diversity in the classroom, and critical moments in college teaching. A unique aspect of the program is the requirement of departmental commitment as a requisite to involvement in the orientation. Department chairs appoint a faculty liaison to our Center and, working in coordination with us, invite TAs to the program and participate in a departmental luncheon.

In this way, not only TAs but also the department chair and faculty representatives are invested in the orientation.

Deans and Chairs Conference, Fall 1991. As part of a FIPSE funded Focus on Teaching Project (Diamond & Adam, 1993), the campus initiated a day-long campus conference to enable all chairs, deans, and academic administrators to discuss the role of academic leaders in supporting undergraduate teaching and learning. A committee of chairs, deans, and administrators plans the conference, which is now an annual event, and over 80% of academic leaders, including the Provost and Chancellor, have attended each year. Conference themes have included *Teaching and Research, Creating a Multicultural Campus,* and *The Changing University.*

Strategies for Developing a Teaching Culture

How can we tell that these five initiatives have become institutional features? In retrospect we can see we took some crucial steps that assured the lasting effect of these programs on the culture for teaching at the University. In this section we will discuss five basic strategies that contributed to the longevity and success of our initiatives and provide examples of how these strategies are embodied, in one form or another, in our programs.

These strategies are now incorporated into all our planning because they have proven so successful in helping a teaching community to flourish. As the program descriptions and the accounts of strategies both reveal, there is a great deal of overlap among the five principles we have come to depend upon. And in a way, that is the point: linkages are the linchpin of effective and long-lasting efforts to integrate a teaching culture into the life of the University.

Identify Existing Support for Teaching. On any campus there are a number of faculty and administrators who have a strong commitment to teaching. Frequently, these individuals have not been identified, nor have they been provided with a forum in which they can express their support for teaching and meet colleagues with similar views. Engaging these individuals, then, is a solid first step in building community and in identifying excellence in teaching as an indwelling asset on campus, rather than as something to be imported or enforced.

The Teaching Fellows Program served as the first catalyst in this process. Early on we felt that the program would be successful if it was perceived as prestigious. Because the program was designed as a competitive fellowship offering release time, department chairs nominated promising young teachers and researchers to work with us. The junior faculty, in turn, selected mentors. This is when we realized that there were senior faculty who had been seeking a forum for sharing their commitment to teaching with others. When the program was initiated in the Fall of 1986, a retreat was held which brought together six distinguished senior faculty (mentors) with six energetic and enthusiastic junior faculty. At that retreat there was a revealing moment when after an extensive discussion of teaching, a mentor who is a highly distinguished scholar said "In all the years I have been at this university, I have been asked to speak about my research numerous times, but this is the first time I have ever been asked to talk about teaching."

Dedicated faculty such as these helped to establish the credibility of the program campus wide. The notion of seeking support from key faculty members was reinforced as we worked to create a campus-wide teaching center. Teaching development centers need to be identified with and work closely with outstanding faculty. Directors of centers might look at the model of a research institute which brings together the very best research faculty as a way of encouraging scholarship in particular areas. They should avoid the image of such centers being the place where teachers are "sentenced" to go to improve their teaching skills. While faculty who need help in their teaching should be welcomed and supported, teaching centers also need to bring together the very best teachers on campus for the purpose of improving teaching for all faculty and should use outstanding faculty to provide programming and new experiments to improve teaching.

In short, support for teaching involves not only providing the resources to enable teachers to improve but also showcasing the real accomplishments and talents of instructors who are "local experts." In this way, a teaching center comes to be seen not only as a source of help but also as the hub of intellectual and creative activity related to teaching.

Build Support at Multiple Levels. A recent study of attitudes toward teaching on college and university campuses (Grey, Froh, & Diamond, 1992), funded by the Fund for the Improvement of Post-Secondary Education (FIPSE), asked academic administrators, deans, department chairs, and faculty members on over 100 campuses not only to provide their views on what the appropriate balance between teaching and research should be but also to rate the values of other participants in the study (e.g., individual faculty provided their own view on the appropriate balance between research and teaching and also noted what they thought were the values of their department chair, dean, and central administrators). One of the most fascinating conclusions of the study was that faculty generally saw themselves as valuing teaching more highly than their department chair, dean, or the central administration; department chairs and deans saw themselves as valuing teaching more highly than the central administration; and central administrators saw themselves as valuing teaching more highly than deans and department heads. In other words, there is a considerable amount of latent support for teaching among faculty and academic leaders at all levels; thus, there are opportunities to create a more supportive environment for teaching at most institutions. To be effective, however, interventions need to take place at all levels.

Central Administration. The central administration frequently understands the need to improve teaching on the campus in terms of external constituencies (from parents, alumni, trustees, and legislators) but just as frequently believes that there is little support on campus for teaching and may be reluctant to take a stand on the issue for fear that they will be perceived as not supporting the research mission of the institution. In this situation, the faculty developer can be very effective in obtaining central administration support for teaching development efforts by identifying — for the central administration — a critical mass of faculty who support teaching development, including faculty of high stature within the institution who are apt to be perceived as leaders by their colleagues.

Our first Celebration of Teaching Dinner was a breakthrough in terms of providing the central administration with evidence that there was wide-spread support for good teaching and a desire to recognize it. The provost (who was later appointed chancellor) attended. When he saw the size and composition of the audience, and observed the response to the event, he became convinced that there was a large community of faculty who supported teaching. And, over the last eight years, he has returned to and participated in every celebration dinner. More importantly, when the three-year Lilly Endowment grant ended, the provost decided to fully fund out of his office the teaching fellows program. The internal funds have been protected for six years now, despite the fact that in recent years the provost's area and all of academic affairs have been particularly hard hit by budget cuts.

The teaching center, which houses the teaching fellows, also helps to foster central administrative support for teaching. It provides contact between fellows and central administrators, which enables the fellows to talk about their experiences and demonstrates to administrators that there are exceptional junior faculty on campus who are committed to teaching. In addition, the Center works with the central administration to provide campus-wide conferences and retreats. In its structure and programs, the Center itself models the strategy of continually building multilevel support for its efforts.

Deans and Department Chairs. Many deans and department chairs would like a more supportive environment for teaching but feel that their efforts would not be supported by either the central administration or by individual faculty members in their department or college. In order to improve support at this level within the institution, department heads indeed need to be convinced that both the central administration and the faculty at large support teaching. Since this requires support from both above and below, the so-called "middle management" of the university is one of the most difficult to move in the direction of supporting teaching at a research institution.

We began to court chairpersons by enlisting their support in the Teaching Fellows Program. We emphasized that candidates must be nominated by their department chairs because we were convinced that without a supportive climate within the department it would be difficult for the fellow to sustain newly learned views and skills in teaching. We also stressed the ability of the program to provide recognition to the home academic department and to reward the department with curriculum development opportunities. As fellows developed teaching skills in a interdisciplinary and collaborative environment, chairs began to see that at the end of the year the department received back a faculty member who was now a trained teacher who could share ideas with other faculty within and beyond the department.

Further connections with academic departments were created by the teaching center over time. For example, we now design departmental workshops and consultations on specific topics requested by various departments. We also ask for departmental commitment to an interdisciplinary teaching assistant orientation in which both TAs and faculty representatives of each department are involved, and publish a teaching handbook that is available free of charge to TAs and faculty in all departments.

The deans and chairs conference provides another opportunity to address the need for support for teaching from this stratum of academic leadership. Department heads and chairs are critical in changing the teaching culture on campus, but there are few early intervention strategies that allowed us to work directly with this critical group of individuals. Being invited to participate in the FIPSE Focus on Teaching Project provided the provost's office and the teaching center with a timely opportunity to work with the department chairs and heads on campus. The first conference tackled the issue of the balance between teaching and research. That day-long conference began with presentations by the chancellor and provost followed by opportunities for the chairs to meet in small groups across disciplines to discuss issues raised in the large group sessions. At the end of the day, the chairs and heads were assembled by college with their deans and asked to develop strategies for better balancing teaching and research. The conference encouraged participants to describe the initiatives that they had successfully introduced to support teaching and to discuss opportunities for future policies and programs.

Individual Faculty. To improve faculty support for teaching, individual faculty members must be convinced that there are a significant number of other faculty on campus that support teaching and that the administration, at all levels, values teaching, especially at the undergraduate level.

The Teaching Fellows Program reached out to selected junior faculty and their mentors, but the base of support and involvement needed broadening. This was accomplished in several ways, through largely through programs housed at the Center For Teaching. In order to involve faculty across academic ranks, disciplines, and career stages, the center offered an array of teaching improvement opportunities. For example, well-publicized campus-wide workshops, such as those on academic honesty in the classroom and writing as a tool to help students learn, were aimed at a wide range of needs. These workshops helped to bring together and make visible the cohort of dedicated teachers, both as audience members and as presenters. In addition, Center staff provided both comprehensive and short-term consultation services, midterm course evaluations, print and video resources, a newsletter, and small grants for implementing innovative teaching materials or techniques.

In sum, since the support for teaching that exists at each level of the university depends in part on the support from other levels of the university, the faculty developer will be successful in improving faculty teaching to the extent that she has been able to garner support for teaching within the central and departmental administrations. The converse is also true: that obtaining support by administrative units is more easily accomplished if the campus already has broad-based faculty support for teaching. Our programs have usually been directed at more than one of the three levels but have sometimes emphasized one or the other—central administrators, deans, department chairs, or faculty—depending on the circumstances at hand.

Create Community and Collegiality Around Teaching. Despite being attracted to the autonomy offered by an academic career, faculty still desire support from each other. Most faculty we've worked with have expressed a sincere longing to talk about teaching with colleagues both within and outside their disciplines, departments, and colleges. Over the years, we've put increased effort into figuring out ways to bring individuals—not only faculty, but also chairs, deans, and campus administrators—together. Whether through peer visits, informal study groups, conferences, or social events, the input of others offers new and original ideas, provides intellectual stimulation around teaching issues, and creates a sense of community that helps to break down the isolation felt by many college teachers.

In the Teaching Fellows Program, for example, collegiality is encouraged by selecting on interdisciplinary group of fellows, having the fellows meet regularly to talk about their teaching, and involving them in the design of the teaching development workshops series for the fellowship year, some of which will be available to the broader campus community.

The Center For Teaching fosters community by enlisting outstanding senior faculty to act as presenters in campus-wide workshops, to sit on University committees related to teaching, and to serve as "faculty associates" at the Center each year, where they are responsible for offering workshops and consultations to their colleagues. One of the Center's foremost aims is to provide, often in concert with other departments or campus agencies, a variety of programs over time to serve all disciplinary interests on campus, from the sciences to the arts, as well as program topics of general interest to the community as a whole, such as teaching in the diverse classroom, writing across the curriculum, and effectively teaching large classes. In addition, the Center and the provost's office attempt to respond to needs and create linkages both within and among individuals, departments, and colleges through such annual events as the Teaching Assistant Orientation, the Deans and Chairs Conference, and the Celebration of Teaching Dinner.

Seek Links with the Research Mission. Improving the teaching culture at research universities can be most effectively accomplished if development efforts do not come into conflict with the research culture of the institution. Both administrators and faculty are usually committed to the unique research capabilities of such an institution and should not be asked to choose between research and teaching. In fact, we recognized early on that many faculty believe that both teaching and research are important responsibilities; these individuals who have successfully united the two roles will be critical in improving the teaching climate on campus.

Their support can only be obtained, however, if the teaching development effort is perceived as being integrated with the research mission rather than in competition with it. We have addressed this in several ways. The mentors and fellows in the Teaching Fellows Program are not only committed teachers — many are also among the very best researchers in the institution. A subtle but very powerful link with the research mission is provided by giving the fellows release time (as opposed to other compensation) in order to participate in the fellowship year. This not only allows the fellows to participate in teaching development, but also gives them additional time to work on research. In addition, a notion of a "fellowship" is one both junior faculty and chairs resonate to as a vehicle for positively impacting a career.

While the Center For Teaching has tried to speak to the distinct concerns of faculty interested in teaching, it also has tried to transcend the artificial dichotomies between research and teaching. Because the Center has always sought the support of distinguished research faculty who are committed to teaching, it has not been viewed as a threat to the research mission and is valued throughout the campus community for its professional expertise, commitment to quality, and broad-based support for faculty development.

The topics of the annual deans and chairs conferences have also explored the relationship between teaching and research, as have a number of campus-wide workshops, such as those on teachers as writers, student learning styles, and models of racial identity in the classroom.

Provide Recognition and Reward. The motivation for good teaching is primarily intrinsic. Still, when we ask faculty for ideas on improving the climate for teaching, they often mention something vaguely described as a need for rewards. The need is in part salary or resources but is also clearly for more than that. It is difficult for research universities to balance rewards between "stars" and the wider group of "good citizens" who teach undergraduates, sit on committees, and the like. We make a conscious effort to take notice of all efforts to improve teaching, whether by individual faculty or departments or colleges within the institution, and to give them as much publicity as possible. Such efforts include not only distinguished teaching awards, but also opportunities for faculty and academic leaders to present their ideas and programs on teaching.

The Teaching Fellows Program provides extensive recognition of the junior faculty selected as fellows and the senior faculty who serve as mentors. The program also distinguishes the departments and colleges from which the faculty fellows are selected. Recognition is provided through the Celebration of Teaching Dinner, newspaper publicity, and opportunities for the fellows to meet with both the chancellor and the provost during their fellowship year.

In addition, the Center For Teaching tries to take note of the achievements of faculty members and congratulate them on a smaller scale. For example, our weekly newspaper, the *Campus Chronicle*, often reports faculty contributions both within and outside the institution. We respond to as many of these reports as possible. As a result, any "faculty friend of the Center" who has developed a new course, completed a textbook or scholarly project, received tenure or promotion, or provided conscientious service on a teaching-related committee receives a note from us. Admittedly, this activity is time consuming, but it is exceedingly low cost and high yield in terms of faculty appreciation.

For explanatory purposes we have dissected our programs and strategies. In reality, however, they are always multifaceted in both design and execution. One example of this interwoven quality is the celebration of teaching dinner. The dinner not only honors the fellows and mentors who have participated in the teaching fellows program but also brings together the larger campus community which is committed to teaching for a festive evening that is solely and unashamedly about teaching and learning. The notions of providing multilevel support, collegiality, linkage with the research mission, and ample measures of appreciation are fostered by the simple strategy of inviting representatives from all constituencies of the campus, including academic leaders, faculty who have been recognized by the campus as either outstanding teachers and/or outstanding scholars, academic staff, and students.

In may seem ironic that the subtlest blend of the five strategies is to be found in a social rather than a strictly academic event. However, university life can be fragmented by disciplinary allegiances, scholarly activities, campus politics, and financial hardship. This single event crosses all those boundaries to affirm that teaching, and the relationships which cause it to thrive, transcends the concerns that can divide us into competing camps within the same institution.

The Future

Two new initiatives are currently being undertaken. As a result of a campus commitment to improving faculty and teaching assistant training, especially for teaching in the diverse classroom, the Center For Teaching has been awarded funding from the President's Office to develop a faculty and TA development program around issues of diversity. The program is being planned with many of the aforementioned strategies in mind. In particular, the program will extend the linkages we've already developed with departments by working across units to provide campus-wide resources for teaching, learning, and diversity, as well as customized diversity training for each department or cluster of departments.

The second initiative deals with the critical issue of faculty roles and rewards. As part of a strategic planning process, a committee on faculty roles and rewards has been established by the chancellor. It is too early to tell what the outcomes of this effort will be, but the goal is to provide a fair and just system of rewards compatible with the roles for which faculty are responsible. We hope to achieve a campus-wide consensus concerning the rewards for teaching and research and to eventually develope a reward structure which will ensure that both activities are encouraged and rewarded fairly.

Much of what we've discovered about creating an institutional culture that values teaching can be found in the prime importance of: identifying support of all kinds, crossing boundaries and creating linkages of all kinds, providing all kinds of opportunities for collegiality, and providing all kinds of ways for faculty to develop and receive recognition as teachers. If one were seeking strategies for creating a teaching culture on any campus, these strategies might be places to begin.

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Reclaiming Teaching Excellence: Miami University's Teaching Scholars Program

Milton D. Cox

Miami University

The 1994 Hesburgh Award-winning Teaching Scholars Program for junior faculty at Miami University is described, implementation and program strategies are discussed, and the effectiveness and impact of the Program are assessed.

Introduction

The longest running junior faculty development program in the United States has received the 1994 Hesburgh Award, given by TIAA/CREF to the outstanding faculty development program that has improved undergraduate teaching. Established in 1978 by Miami University, the Teaching Scholars Program was developed to systematically reclaim the importance of teaching at the University. The Program focuses on junior faculty and assists their development of teaching abilities through participation in a two-semester series of special activities and individual projects related to teaching.

Over the last 20 years, the welfare of new and junior faculty in academe has been neglected. Research about their experiences, stresses, and strategies to improve their lot have appeared in many articles and reports during the past decade, as well as in books by Boice (1992) and Sorcinelli and Austin (1992). A more detailed look at

Miami's Teaching Scholars Program, incorporating this literature, can be found in Cox (in press).

Founded in 1809, Miami University is a state-assisted, residential university in Oxford, Ohio. The Oxford campus enrollment is approximately 16,000 (including 14,000 undergraduates), with an additional 4,000 students on two nearby, nonresidential, urban two-year regional campuses. Miami University has a history and tradition of emphasis on undergraduate teaching. Its mission statement includes the following goals: "to provide an environment conducive to effective and inspired teaching and learning, and to promote professional development of faculty. . ." During the 1950s and 60s, as enrollment tripled and doctoral programs were developed, Miami experienced a change in its academic culture similar to other campuses across the nation. This was a period of growing expectations for universities to play an important role in producing new knowledge to contribute to the betterment of society. Concern that this change in culture could negatively impact learning by undergraduates led to a concerted effort to study the problem and search for solutions. A committee of senior faculty, students, and administrators appointed by the Provost in 1978 proposed a solution. The result was the development of the Teaching Scholars Program, directed by a faculty member under the auspices of the University Senate's Committee on the Improvement of Instruction.

Program Goals, Objectives, and Activities

The *objectives* of the Miami Teaching Scholars Program have been to provide junior faculty with information on teaching and learning, observation of successful teaching, practice in using new skills and technology, time and support for individual investigations of teaching problems and projects, opportunities to share ideas and advice with senior faculty mentors, experience with the scholarship of teaching, and colleagueship across disciplines.

For the university, the long-term *goals* of the Program have been to increase faculty interest in undergraduate teaching and learning, inform faculty about teaching and active learning in the multicultural classroom, build university-wide community through teaching, increase faculty collaboration and the coherence of learning across disciplines, nourish the scholarship of teaching, and broaden the evaluation of and increase the rewards for teaching.

Full-time faculty in tenure-track positions are eligible to participate in the Program during their second through fifth years of teaching at Miami. Nine to 13 applicants are chosen in April for participation the next year. A joint call for applications, issued by the Provost and the Program Director, is mailed to all eligible faculty. The Provost also writes to chairs and deans, asking them to encourage their faculty to apply. A subcommittee of the Committee on the Improvement of Instruction reads the written applications and makes the selections. Criteria for selection include commitment to quality teaching, level of interest in the Program, need, potential for contributions to the Program, and plans for the award year. The selection committee works diligently to create gender balance and to create a diverse group across disciplines, campuses, and participants' needs and experiences.

During their year in the Program, the Teaching Scholars participate in a wide variety of activities.

Seminars on teaching and learning. The Teaching Scholars select seminar topics and speakers after consulting with the previous year's group and the Program Director. Often-selected topics include using discussion in the classroom, the effect of gender on the teaching and learning process, infusing cultural diversity across the curriculum, enhancing the teaching and learning experience through awareness of students' intellectual development, creating teaching portfolios, videotaping to enhance teaching effectiveness, ethical dilemmas in teaching, and the scholarship of teaching.

Senior faculty mentoring. Teaching Scholars select one or two senior members of the faculty to serve as their mentors. Over 125 Miami faculty have volunteered to serve as teaching resources, listing more than 50 areas of teaching expertise. From a pool including this list, former Teaching Scholars and Mentors, or interesting colleagues they have met, the new participants interview and select a Mentor in consultation with the Program Director and their department chair. The trend over the years has moved from selecting a mentor in one's department to choosing someone from a noncognate department. The structure of their interaction is flexible: For example, the mentors and proteges may attend one another's classes, discuss teaching philosophies, or explore university issues together.

Teaching projects. The Teaching Scholars pursue self-designed and peer-reviewed learning programs, including teaching projects, for which they receive financial support. Projects have included developing computer-assisted instruction, learning and trying classroom assessment techniques, redesigning a course to include the contributions of women, and surveying students and faculty about social and interpersonal aspects of teaching and learning.

Retreats. An opening/closing retreat is held in May so that graduating participants can share their mentoring, project, and seminar experiences with the new group. In October, another college campus, with a mission and students very different from those of Miami, is the setting for seminars with host faculty and students. In February, the participants lead teaching seminars at the campus-wide Miami Teaching Effectiveness Retreat.

National conferences. Each November, the Teaching Scholars participate in the annual Miami Lilly Conference on College Teaching, where they have the opportunity to meet and consult with nationally known teacher scholars. In March, members of the group present papers at a national teaching conference.

Program Strategies

Miami University utilized the following strategies in developing this program to improve teaching. Faculty developers at other colleges and universities may find many of these ideas helpful, depending upon the culture at their institutions.

- Make the keystone of teaching improvement efforts a year-long teaching program for junior faculty, as a long-term investment in the university, a "greening of the future" (at Miami, the Program's motto). As junior faculty become tenured and assume leadership in their departments, their high esteem for teaching and their positive experience with the university community will have a ripple effect throughout the institution.

- Involve all citizens of the university—administrators, students, and faculty—in the workings of the program but place ownership with the faculty.
- Obtain secure funding and official faculty endorsement to sustain the program as a long-term endeavor.
- View an individual's participation in the program as an honor, a positive achievement, and an indication of strong interest in teaching.
- Select participants to create a cross-cultural balance in the program — across gender, disciplines, campuses, and participants' needs and previous teaching experiences.
- Provide junior faculty participants with release time from at least one course for at least one semester.
- Create opportunities for participants to broaden their perspective and understanding of teaching and learning beyond the home campus.
- Involve tenured faculty as mentors in a flexible way. Reward mentors with recognition, complimentary books on teaching, thank-you dinners, and the like. In a real sense, they are participants in the program and, in some cases, may grow as much as the junior faculty.
- Involve the junior faculty participants in the design and assessment of programming, including seminar topics, retreats, teaching projects, and mentoring.
- Illustrate, encourage, and provide outlets for the scholarship of teaching.
- Provide an opportunity for participants to share their interest in and enthusiasm for teaching with other faculty, thus expanding the impact of the program. For example, participants can lead a teaching retreat for faculty, with presentations featuring the results of teaching projects.
- Assess all program components and participant development, and use the feedback for planning, funding, and continuation of the program.
- Design activities, accommodations, and recognition to make participants feel valued and respected by the institution.

- Communicate desired teaching and learning outcomes. The university president and the provost should be outspoken in their support of the program and its objectives; still, the participants are the best spokespersons, as they share their enthusiasm with other new faculty and their departmental colleagues via teaching retreats and mentoring.

Miami's Teaching Scholars Program addresses the challenge to the university community of reclaiming teaching and learning excellence by providing guidance and assistance to new faculty in their formative years in the professoriate. This challenge is part of the larger issue of the culture of the academy and the need to make the teaching and learning of undergraduates as important, respected, and valued as discovery research.

Miami's Teaching Scholars Program represented a fresh direction in faculty development programs in 1978. It retains that freshness today because of constant nurturing and improvement by a committed university administration, faculty, student body, and alumni. Thus, the current Program is comprehensive, incorporating several proven and innovative elements:

- Sixteen years ago, the strategy of involving senior faculty as mentors was bold, because it had failed on several campuses. However, because of Miami senior faculty's the dedication to teaching, the mentoring part of the Program continues to be successful. Some participants now select two mentors, one within and one outside their department.
- An important component is the engagement of participants with teaching and learning issues in different cultures (i.e., a retreat with faculty at a very different type of campus and attendance at the Lilly Conference on College Teaching-West in California).
- The emphasis on the scholarship of teaching, particularly the initiation of a national teaching conference and a refereed journal, encourages Program participants to see and present pedagogical scholarship.
- This year, several Teaching Scholars are experimenting with the teaching portfolio approach to the evaluation of teaching.

- The most recent new direction is the establishment of Miami's Office for the Advancement of Scholarship and Teaching, in which the Program now is housed. The new office encourages faculty to find ways to link teaching and research in working with undergraduates.
- Funding of the Program by alumni is unique. It demonstrates a strong endorsement by former students.
- The university's long-term commitment to the Program is unusual. By 1984, most of the extensions of previous Lilly Teaching Fellows Programs at other universities had ended, yet Miami's strong commitment continues to the present.

Success and Impact

Over the past 16 years, the Teaching Scholars Program has had widespread influence. However, recent new emphases may extend further its impact on balancing the prestige and rewards for scholarship and teaching, broadening the evaluation of teaching and assessment of learning, enlarging common ground between university-wide missions and departmental cultures, increasing active learning in the classroom, enhancing learning in the multicultural classroom, and involving undergraduates in research.

The initial three years of the Program were funded by a Lilly Endowment Grant as part of the Lilly Teaching Fellows Program. When the University Senate overwhelmingly endorsed continuation of the Program after the third year, the Miami alumni assumed funding of the Program and continue to fund the Program today. Because of the value and success of the Program over the years, Miami's alumni have increased funding continually so that more extensive initiatives could be undertaken. These initiatives include a wide variety of teaching grants and leaves, the Lilly Conferences on College Teaching, the *Journal on Excellence in College Teaching*, the Senior Faculty Program for Teaching Excellence, and the Teaching Portfolio Project. All grants, awards, policy decisions, selection of participants, and budget recommendations are made by the faculty and students on the Committee on the Improvement of Instruction. This faculty and student commitment to teaching is a valuable resource. The half-time

Program Director (a faculty member) and third-time secretary of the Program coordinate the process. Thus, most of the funds have been invested directly in faculty and their development, with only a small percentage used for administration.

The Teaching Scholars complete an annual evaluation that asks what impact their participation in the Program has had on them. They report that the greatest impact is on their interest in the teaching process. Over the past 12 years, the mean for "interest in the teaching process" has been 8.4 on a 10-point scale (with 10 the highest).

The scholarship of teaching (Boyer, 1990) has been nourished in a variety of ways. This scholarship is developed for the junior faculty participants gradually over the year through a sequence of steps: design and implementation of a teaching project; selection and use of classroom assessment techniques; reading of teaching literature; attendance at a national teaching conference, with opportunities to meet nationally known teacher-scholars; presentation of a teaching seminar on campus, followed by a presentation at a national teaching conference; and encouragement to prepare a manuscript for publication. Although the scholarship of teaching was not a buzzword when the Program was first developed, the outward focus of the Program participants was part of the movement that created high quality teaching scholarship. For example, Program seminars have been led by teacher-scholars working at the cutting edge of teaching and learning theory. Marcia Baxter Magolda, a Program participant in 1985-86, published the book, *Knowing and Reasoning in College* (1992), about the intellectual development of students. Blythe Clinchy and Mary Belenky (1986) gave presentations on the effect of gender in teaching and learning, while Tom Angelo and Pat Cross (1993) conducted seminars on classroom assessment techniques. Ernest Boyer and Gene Rice addressed participants on the new scholarship, and Barbara Millis (1991) worked with the group on cooperative learning. Bill McKeachie (1994) discussed faculty's teaching projects with participants, and Joe Lowman (1984) consulted with them about videotapes of their teaching. The participants rank the scholarship of teaching second of all elements of the Program (mean of 8.2 on the 10-point scale) in terms of impact on their teaching.

Although progress began to be made in transforming the culture at Miami to one that values the scholarship of teaching, participants next recognized that the change was not national in scope. To have a lasting effect, there also would have to be a national change in academic culture. To help this happen, to provide an outlet for the participants' scholarship of teaching, and to involve participants in more diverse cultures, the Teaching Scholars Program undertook the following two important national initiatives.

The Lilly Conference on College Teaching. Since its inception in 1981, the Lilly Conference on College Teaching at Miami has grown from 50 participants to 400. The 14th Annual Lilly Conference will be held in November 1994. Each conference now features over 30 nationally known presenters and 50 contributed papers. In addition, Miami University has, with various California institutions, developed and cosponsored the Lilly Conference on College Teaching-West, which will hold its 7th annual meeting in March 1995. In June 1995, the first Lilly Conference-South will be cosponsored with the University of South Carolina. Teaching Scholars Program participants present at these conferences, where both novice and expert teacher-scholars from a wide variety of campus cultures share their classroom experiences and teaching and learning innovations.

Journal on Excellence in College Teaching. With the support of Miami alumni donations and a national editorial board (mostly active Lilly Conference participants over the years), the Journal has published four annual volumes and moved to two issues for Volume 5 in 1994. Invited for submission are papers on college teaching that demonstrate excellence in one of these areas: research, integration, innovation, or inspiration. Featured articles have been written by Peter Beidler, Blythe Clinchy, K. Patricia Cross, Tony Grasha, Barbara Millis, John Roth, and other nationally known experts. The Journal is abstracted by ERIC and *Higher Education Abstracts*.

Teaching Scholar Program participants take advantage of the above opportunities. For example, Helaine Alessio, a Program participant in 1989-90, presented a paper on her teaching project, "Use of Educational Games for Difficult Subject Material," at the 1989 Lilly Conference. Her manuscript was reviewed by peers and published in the second volume of the *Journal on Excellence in College Teaching*

(1991). Catherine Bishop-Clark and Jean Lynch, 1990-91 participants, presented the results of their teaching project, "The Mixed-Age Classroom," at the 1992 Lilly Conference and published the resulting article in the Summer 1992 issue of *College Teaching*. Barbara Flannery and Maureen Vanterpool, 1989-90 participants, presented at the 1990 Lilly Conference and published the results of their project, "Infusing Cultural Diversity Concepts Across the Curriculum," in the 1991 *To Improve the Academy*. Philip Cottell, 1985-86 participant, attended Barbara Millis's cooperative learning workshop at the 1985 Lilly Conference, became excited about cooperative learning, used it in his classes, joined POD, presented several joint workshops with Millis, and joined with Millis to coauthor an instructor's resource guide (Cottell & Millis, 1994).

Awards for excellent teaching at Miami have increased. When the Program was established, there were only two teaching awards on campus. Now there are over 10 annual awards, given by divisions, departments, and regional consortia. Some awards carry attractive stipends.

Financial support for teaching has grown considerably. The success of the Program and the enthusiasm of its participants have generated a tenfold increase in the developmental support of teaching. Since 1978, the Miami alumni and the Provost have expanded the annual budget available to the Committee on the Improvement of Instruction from $15,000 to over $150,000. Resources now support small grants to improve teaching, teaching leaves (for mid-career faculty), faculty exchanges, department/program grants to encourage teaching initiatives by entire departments, visiting teacher-scholar grants, travel grants to attend teaching conferences, and new initiatives such as the teaching portfolio project, a learning technologies enrichment program, and a program to help departments fund innovative ways to enhance undergraduate research.

A university-wide community has been created and strengthened through teaching. In the annual evaluations mentioned earlier, the third highest impact reported was on the Scholars' comfort as members of the Miami University community (the mean over the years is 8.1 on the 10- point scale).

Former participants now serve as mentors and seminar leaders; two are now department chairs.

Program graduates have contributed to greater coherence of learning across disciplines. In 1990, the Miami Plan, a new general education program broadening cross-disciplinary curriculum and collaboration, was approved by the University Senate after four years of planning and discussion. Many former teaching scholars and mentors participated in its development.

Undergraduate student learning has been enhanced in many ways. Students learn more from enthusiastic, interested teachers (Weimer, 1990). The Teaching Scholars become such teachers. Some participants also indicated in the open-ended part of their final reports that their student evaluation ratings had increased an entire point on a four-point scale. The participants reported that another high impact the program had was on their total effectiveness as a teacher; the mean over the years is 7.8 on the 10-point scale.

Miami's tenure study, comparing Miami junior faculty who participated in the Program with those who chose not to, found a significant association between Program participation and a positive tenure decision (Cox, in press).

The Teaching Scholars Program has been recognized nationally as one of the best junior faculty development programs. Austin (1990), in a review of 30 former Lilly Teaching Fellows Programs, 1974-1988, recognized the Program at Miami as one of four current, exemplary, continuing programs in the country.

Over the past 16 years, the Teaching Scholars Program has had a tremendous impact on the Miami community. One hundred forty-nine junior faculty and 118 mentors have participated. The success of the Program has spawned interest and resources to create the wide variety of related teaching programs mentioned above. The budget for faculty teaching improvement has increased tenfold during this period. Based upon the success of the Program's mentoring element, the President endorsed and encouraged a senior faculty mentoring program for new faculty in all departments. Former Program participants have been active in establishing a new university-wide general education curriculum and a campus-wide teaching portfolio project. Senior faculty have admired the Teaching Scholars Program to the extent that they have lobbied for, designed, and now implemented a similar program, the Senior Faculty Program for Teaching Excellence. More undergraduates are involved in research, working in small seminars and one-to-one with professors. There is more collaboration across disciplines and campuses than ever before.

How has Miami found such substantial support and maintained enthusiasm for the Teaching Scholars Program for so many years? The strategies and leadership mentioned above have fostered enthusiasm in the junior faculty participants, who have convinced students, colleagues, chairs, deans, and provosts that the Program works. Junior faculty are hungry for colleagueship across disciplines, and they now arrive at Miami with an interest in teaching. Finally, leading the Program is an exciting and rewarding experience for the Director.

Through a faculty development program for junior faculty, the university has reclaimed teaching excellence. The culture did change; the ripple effect occurred. A university-wide community has been built around teaching.

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Appendix

MIAMI UNIVERSITY
TEACHING SCHOLARS PROGRAM
END-OF-YEAR FINAL EVALUATION
1993-94

Your Name: ____________________

Please complete and return to Milt Cox by August 1. This report and an evaluation or summary of all the reports may be reviewed by the Committee for the Improvement of Instruction, University Senate, and the Provost as they plan for the future. Thank you.

1. How would you rate the impact on you of each of the following elements of the Teaching Scholars Program? Circle the number on the scale below which reflects your judgment. '1% would indicate a very weak impact and '10% a very strong impact. Also, if you have a comment to make about any of these aspects of the program, use the space provided.

A. The Mentor relationship
1 2 3 4 5 6 7 8 9 10

B. Observation of Mentors or others classes
1 2 3 4 5 6 7 8 9 10

C. The retreats and national conferences
1 2 3 4 5 6 7 8 9 10

D. Seminars
1 2 3 4 5 6 7 8 9 10

E. The teaching project
1 2 3 4 5 6 7 8 9 10

F. Release time
1 2 3 4 5 6 7 8 9 10

G. The colleagueship and learning from the other Teaching Scholars
1 2 3 4 5 6 7 8 9 10

2. In a similar manner, estimate the impact of the Teaching Scholars Program as a totality on each of the following, using '1% as weak impact and "10" as strong impact.

A. Your technical skill as a teacher
1 2 3 4 5 6 7 8 9 10

B. Your total effectiveness as a teacher
1 2 3 4 5 6 7 8 9 10

C. Your interest in the teaching process
1 2 3 4 5 6 7 8 9 10

D. Your research and scholarly interest with respect to your discipline
1 2 3 4 5 6 7 8 9 10

E. Your view of teaching as an intellectual pursuit
1 2 3 4 5 6 7 8 9 10

F. Your understanding of and interest with respect to the scholarship of teaching

1 2 3 4 5 6 7 8 9 10

G. Your awareness of ways to integrate the teaching/research experience

1 2 3 4 5 6 7 8 9 10

H. Your comfort as a member of the Miami University community

1 2 3 4 5 6 7 8 9 10

I. Your understanding of the role of a faculty member at Miami University

1 2 3 4 5 6 7 8 9 10

3. If not covered by the above questions, what have you valued most from your participation in the Teaching Scholars Program?

4. Describe how your teaching and your perception of yourself as a teacher have changed (if they have) as a result of your involvement in the Teaching Scholars Program. Please be as specific as possible.

5. What aspect(s) of the program could be changed to make it more valuable for future Teaching Scholars?

6. Additional comments

MIAMI UNIVERSITY
TEACHING SCHOLARS PROGRAM
FINAL REPORT
Due September 1

Please format your report with the same heading as above. List your name, title and department directly below this heading. These reports will be bound and available for reading by the Committee on the Improvement of Instruction, the Provost, and faculty interested in the program. Structure your report using the following outline or make sure all the requested information is included. This report should be no more than 4 pages in length; you may attach appendices.

I. Goals and Objectives for the Year

These may have changed as the year progressed, so you may wish to discuss the transition. You may wish to reread your application, Initial Learning Plan and Mid-Year Progress Report. Briefly summarize in what ways and with what success you have (or have not) met your goals and objectives.

II. Teaching/Learning Activities

Mention how your teaching/learning activities have been related to your goals and objectives.

A. *The Teaching Project(s)*

Some of you have indicated that your project may lead to or has already led to something tangible, such as publications or presentations at conferences, etc. Be sure to mention these, and attach a copy or rough draft if that is the status at this point. If a publication, workbook, etc., comes to fruition later, please send it to the Director. Another example: One year a participant had his students write project papers as part of a new approach to his teaching a certain course; he included a notebook of the finished copies of their work. Some of your teaching projects, or some parts of them, did not result in a tangible outcome, and such a project can be as valuable. For example, if your project involved personal growth, give the details, the outcome and your evaluation of the method tried. In some cases your projects are not completely finished; for example, certain techniques are still to be tried or evaluated in a course during the upcoming year. Include your plans for this.

If your Mentor, readings or other parts of the program contributed to your project, indicate that, too.

B. *Interaction With Your Mentor(s)*

Mention in what ways and how often this occurred. What has this contributed to your experience? Do you plan to continue informally? How could this aspect of the program have been better?

C. *The Scholarship of Teaching*

What is your understanding of this concept? In what ways have you been involved in the scholarship of teaching? Do you plan to continue? What is the climate in your department regarding the scholarship of teaching? If the climate is a chilly one, should it be changed, and if so, how?

D. *Use of Funds*

How have you used all or part of your $125? What effect has this or will this have on your project and, in general, on your teaching?

E. *Other Activities*

III. Summary and Future

This should be a brief summary of your year as a Teaching Scholar and its impact on you and your teaching. Here you may wish to synthesize items 3 and 4 of the Mid-Year Progress Report and the End-of-Year Evaluation. Finally, what plans do you have for the future with respect to teaching?

Valuing the Student Voice: Student Observer/Consultant Programs

D. Lynn Sorenson

Brigham Young University

This article discusses student observer/consultant programs which train impartial students who are invited to give feedback to faculty participants on their teaching. These programs are one way to value the student voice in faculty development. An overview and brief analysis of student observer/consultant programs and evaluations by participants are provided.

At the 18th Annual POD conference "Unveiling Inherent Values," Kenneth Zahorski of St. Norbert College (WI) encouraged "involving students in faculty development [as] a matter of value and values." He reminded us that "in the last two decades . . . we have moved from a **teaching-centered** enterprise to a **learning-centered** profession, from **teacher-centered** courses to **student-centered** classrooms." In citing "student-centered pedagogies, the empowerment of students, learning partnerships, and the student as ultimate beneficiary of faculty development," Zahorski implored faculty developers to "make sure the rhetoric actually reflects reality" (1993).

There are a number of examples where the student voice is valued in faculty development. Probably the most well-known examples of student input for instructional development are the Classroom Assessment Techniques (Angelo & Cross, 1993). In another instance, Bette Lasere Erickson has assembled panels with students of color for faculty training sessions on diversity at the University of Rhode Island. At Brigham Young University, Donald Jarvis has responded to a student plea for more opportunity to make informed choices regarding courses and instructors at registration time. Jarvis is working with student government leaders to develop a computer-accessible directory of courses and professors, their teaching philosophies and methods in order for students to match their learning styles with professors' teaching styles. At St. Norbert, Zahorski has formed, among other things, faculty development committees which include students. And, the focus of this article, a number of campuses have implemented student observer (or consultant) programs, as a method of gathering data about the teaching and learning environment. Student observer/consultant programs offer yet another perspective for faculty introspection, discussion, and, we hope, teaching and learning improvement.

Classroom student observer/consultant programs are a unique way for college teachers to receive feedback on their teaching from the impartial student view. A trained student who is not a member of the class is invited by an instructor to gather data on teaching and learning in a particular course. As the Carleton College *Guidelines for Student Observers* (1993) explains, the purpose of a classroom student observer program is to provide confidential observations/feedback in order to enhance an instructor's effectiveness in helping students learn. Listening to this student voice allows faculty members to gain a broader perspective on their teaching *and* their students' learning. One faculty participant commented that the student observer "provides another valuable 'set of eyes' to see what's going on. Teachers don't often know what's getting through (especially in a large class) nor [do they know] some of their bothersome mannerisms that may hinder effective teaching" (Sorenson, 1993b).

A Brief Overview of Student Observer/Consultant Programs

An historical survey of student observer programs reveals an early observation in 1971 of University of Chicago Professor Brian J. L. Berry by an impartial student, L. Dee Fink, for the purpose of teaching improvement (Fink, 1973). However, observations of this sort did not develop into full-fledged programs until the mid-seventies when a pioneer student observer program was organized at Carleton College (MN). In 1976, inspired by the neighboring Carleton program and spurred on by a Danforth Fellowship, Barbara Helling, St. Olaf College (MN) professor of psychology, established a student consultant program which she still directs (Sorenson, 1993a). The Brigham Young University (UT) Classroom Student Observer Program (CSOP) which I coordinate was originated by Professor Thomas DeLong who in 1990 initiated an honors course on teaching and learning, a component of which was observation of college classes. I "inherited" this program in 1992.

Institutions known to support other student observer programs include Miami University (OH), the University of Chicago, and the University of Georgia. Besides Helling and myself, other POD members coordinate student observer programs at Carleton and Rutgers (NJ); this article focuses on the BYU, Carleton, and St. Olaf programs. Although each student observer/consultant program has its own distinct characteristics, the three programs highlighted here have a number of major commonalities: faculty self-selection by invitation, methods of student observer selection, and training for student observers. As I discuss these commonalities, I will also emphasize the unique features of the BYU Classroom Student Observer Program.

Faculty Self-Selection by Invitation

Faculty members are invited by program coordinators to participate in the programs. Typical participants are professors well known for their excellent teaching (good teachers who want to get even better), new instructors, faculty members teaching new courses or experimenting with changes in old ones, and a very small percentage of instructors who have major problems with teaching and/or relating to students. When BYU faculty members request an observer, they receive the Faculty Handbook (Sorenson, 1994a) detailing the program's philosophy and procedures.

Selection of Student Observers

Student observers/consultants are recommended from honors programs, schools of education, student governments, service organizations, and/or are referred by professors who note students with particular interest in the teaching and learning enterprise. Student observers should be successful students themselves and, at BYU, must submit recommendations from two professors. Many student observers participate semester after semester. It should be noted that students are assigned only as professors make requests for classroom observation. Observers are paid through work-study and/or at campus student wages. However, it does not appear that receiving pay is a necessity in establishing a student observer/consultant program. In fact, students at BYU have often volunteered for the program and been surprised to discover they would be paid. An alternative to monetary remuneration would be offering credit for observation; or, student participation could be solely a service.

Training Student Observers

Student observers are trained by campus faculty developers at regular meetings, in classes about teaching and learning, and/or in presemester workshops. The training includes interpersonal communication skills, observation techniques, and report writing. Students enrolled in classes about teaching and learning receive an introduction to instructional theory and techniques. They become acquainted with ideas of Bloom, Kolb, Light, Palmer, Tobias, and others. During their training, student observers receive handbooks, observation forms, readings, and other materials which help them prepare for their observation responsibilities. At BYU, all new observers perform a practice visit to one of three volunteer "guinea pig" professors (from management, microbiology, or Russian language) and write up an observation before they receive their first official assignment. The purpose of this visit is to help them feel more comfortable and confident in their observation skills.

Strict confidentiality is maintained. A good deal of time is spent emphasizing to students the confidential nature of the observer/instructor relationship. However, some faculty participants pleased with their student observer experiences speak publicly about its benefits and recruit both colleagues and students to take part.

"Sensitive to the ways of academe and the tides of human nature" (Rhem, 1993), program coordinators take great pains to assure that student observers keep two things clearly in mind:

1. They are in the classroom at the instructor's invitation. [BYU calls its program "professor-driven."]
2. They fully understand the difference between observation and opinion. (Rhem, 1993)

Students do not offer opinions—not even positive critiques—unless specifically invited. There is a natural tendency to form opinions, to become critics. Student observers are trained instead to be "mirrors" so that faculty members can become their *own* classroom critics. Helling's experience has taught her that observers *will* be asked for their opinions and will serve as student consultants to the professor participants. She trains the St. Olaf observers/consultants to be "*specific* so that there is some concrete information, *selective* so that there is some guidance as to appropriate directions for effort, and *positive* so that there is some encouragement" (Helling, 1988).

During their training, student observers become well acquainted with their campus faculty developers to whom they can refer professors' more complex questions. At BYU, instructors who have never used any Faculty Center resource often begin to use its library, independent evaluations, and so forth as a result of their contact with a student observer. In other words, while student observers may lack extensive knowledge of theory-based course design or the intricacies of overcoming gender bias in class discussion, they *do* know where to send faculty who want to explore wider teaching and learning issues.

Faculty members who respond to invitations to participate in student observer/consultant programs decide what sort of data they would like from their student observers. At BYU, faculty members receive a list of options from which to choose. Their student observers may serve in any of the following roles:

1. *Recorder/Observer*. The student observers record in writing what happened in class, focusing on *how* the class proceeded, not necessarily *what* was taught. Possible feedback includes a chrono-

logical record of time spent on different activities—board work, questions, small group discussion, and so on.

2. *Faux Student*. Here the student observers take notes as though they were actual students enrolled in the class. This role emphasizes recording *what* was taught rather than *how* it was taught. From these notes faculty members may see how the cognitive presentation of material looked from the student perspective—what seemed most important, what examples were noted, and so forth.
3. *Filmmaker*. The students film the class and give the video tapes to the instructors. Later, depending on faculty preference, they may view and discuss the tape together.
4. *Interviewer*. In this model, the professors leave class fifteen minutes early, and the student observers talk with the class members. Assuring the students' confidentiality, the observers ask them to write answers to three questions which are similar to those from the Small Group Instructional Diagnosis (SGID) pioneered at the University of Washington:

    What should the professor *keep* doing? or What *helps* you learn in this class?

    What should the professor *quit* doing? or What *hinders* your learning in this class?

    What should the professor *start* doing? or What *suggestions* do you have for improving the class?

    The observer forms small groups of students for discussion and then reassembles the whole group to find consensus. Later the observer provides a written report for the instructor.
5. *Primed Student*. Here the professors tell the student observers what to look for. Instead of recording everything, the observers concentrate on something specific, suck as involvment of students in discussion, clarity in the working of problems, or meaningful closure.
6. *Student Consultant*. This model implies an on-going series of observations and an evolving relationship between the observed and the observers. At Carleton this is the most common model, and an observer attends all class sessions of a particular course. As both data and trust build, instructors often invite student observers to offer ideas and suggestions.

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7. *Other*. Instructor choice.

Effectiveness of Student Observer/Consultant Programs

Just as instructors need feedback, student observer/consultant programs require feedback and suggestions to improve. Participants, both faculty and students, complete evaluations at the end of each semester or module of participation. The evaluations ask about the effectiveness of options selected, various observation techniques, strengths and weaknesses of the program, and suggestions for the future. The responses have been overwhelmingly positive, and participants have found the programs valuable. A St. Olaf professor said, "We're lucky to have this program!" (Rost, 1991).

Speaking about her experience with the Classroom Student Observer Program, one BYU professor reported, "It made me more 'self-conscious' in a positive way. It clearly helped my teaching and made it more responsive to students' needs" (Sorenson, 1993b). A comment on the timeliness of the feedback came from a Carleton professor who said, "It's a fine sounding board for regular fine-tuning which I like to give courses while they are in process, not just after they are over" (Scafe, 1993).

Often professors make specific changes after receiving feedback from their observer/consultant. For example, one BYU professor reported, "The most telling criticism I got [as a result of an observer's interview of the class members] was that my tests were unfair. The observer told me [that the interviews revealed] students didn't know what to study for on the tests and that sometimes they didn't understand the words I used to ask my questions on the tests. As a result, I now make a point of having my TAs . . . double-check [tests for] their clarity and fairness" (Rhem, 1993).

Many professors commented on the competence of the student observers/consultants. One professor said, "My observer was bright, personable, and articulate. [She] gave me specific feedback about specific problems" (Sorenson, 1993b). Other comments from professors were, "[My observer] was respectful to me but not afraid to tell me exactly what he saw. This helped me see the class from another perspective" (Sorenson, 1993b) and "I have been reviewed by my colleagues, and I haven't had any constructive criticism from them of as high caliber as from this program!" (Rost, 1991).

As Zahorski suggested, moving from "teacher-centered courses to student-centered classrooms" involves listening to student observers' feedback about these student observer/consultant programs as well. A student observer at BYU said, "[CSOP] helped me realize that there is not necessarily 'one right teaching technique.' An instructor needs to try various ways of teaching in order to appeal to students' various ways of learning" (Sorenson, 1993b).

Student observers also benefit from their experiences in the programs. One student consultant said, "This has helped me prepare for teaching, more so than even my education classes. I can't wait to try things out in my classroom!" (Scafe, 1993). Another observer said, "I am now seriously considering going on to graduate school with the idea of becoming a professor. The 'inside view' I got [as a student observer] has influenced my future goal(s)" (Sorenson, 1993b).

Student observers appreciate the relationships which develop as they consult with faculty in these programs. They also value the opportunity to enhance teaching and learning. Student participants remarked, "The professor takes me seriously, appreciates me, and listens to what I say" (Scafe, 1993) and "The professor and I had good rapport which made me a valuable resource to him. I think the interview was the most valuable [service I performed]. The students were frank, and in the large group discussion, [they] really brought the main strengths and weaknesses of the class into sharp focus" (Sorenson, 1993b).

Limitations of Student Observer/Consultant Programs

First, it is obvious that students lack training and expertise in teaching. However, they do have current and extensive classroom experience. They may even be thought of as "experts" on learning at least their own. Instructors are aware of student observers' limitations and, when necessary, will take their comments with the appropriate reservations.

Second, all three colleges with observer/consultant programs reviewed in this article have homogeneous, traditional-aged student bodies. And each faculty is much like its student body in race, religious background, geographical origins, and social class. This homogeneity has been shown to help students learn from their instructors (Fink, 1984) and presumably would be an asset in teacher-observer relationships, too. However, we do not know if student observer/consultant programs would be successful in more diverse colleges where students are more different from each other and from their instructors.

Third, there are some problems with the program despite the overwhelmingly positive responses. Comments from the faculty participant evaluations revealed that "reports were late in coming; they would have been more help earlier in the semester" (Sorenson, 1993b) and that the "teacher and [observer] need more contact" (Sorenson, 1993b). In the student participants' evaluations, students commented, "two class visits were not enough for me to 'get a feel' for the instructor's teaching style," and "we should have gotten together sooner after the observation; by the time we met we had both forgotten quite a bit of the 'feel' of the class" (Sorenson, 1993b).

How Student Observer Programs Fit with Other Classroom Data Gathering Techniques

We who are charged with helping faculty members improve their teaching welcome opportunities to enable colleagues to examine their teaching with the goal of enhancing their students' learning. We welcome data gathering and any impetus which causes instructors to reflect on and discuss their teaching. In this article, we have added the student observer/consultant program to the following long list of means of gathering data about teaching and student learning:

a) student performance (projects, exams, etc.),
b) student evaluations of teachers (institutionally-designed or proprietary),
c) audio and video taping,
d) Classroom Assessment Techniques (Angelo & Cross, 1993),
e) peer or consultant observation.

Each type of evaluation can assess some measure of teaching and learning, depending on purpose, reliability, and validity. All of them provide views of instructors' teaching. Whether viewed together or singly, they provide a focus for discussion with faculty members about teaching and learning enhancement.

A Mosaic of Our Teaching

If we think of each of these methods as a piece of tile, we can use them to create a "mosaic of our teaching" and its attendant student learning. While the mosaic is not actually our teaching per se, any more than a mosaic of a mountain is actually a mountain, the mosaic can give us a good idea of our teaching, or the ridges and crevices of a mountain. Using a number of measurements helps instructors gain a clearer view of their teaching (and their students' learning) than using any one of them exclusively. Alone, each is but one tile, one bit of colored glass or datum; together they become an intricate mosaic, full of subtleties, revealing new perspectives with the changing light and the addition of new tiles.

Student observer data is one piece of this mosaic. Extending Zahorski's suggestions, we can value the student voice by inviting student observers to place tiles in the mosaic of our teaching, thereby enabling faculty members to see their mosaic in a new light. As meaningful new kinds of teacher-student relationships develop, student observer/consultant programs widen the circle of empowered participation in our academic community.

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Fink, L. D. (1984). Situational factors affecting teaching. In Kenneth E. Eble, Ed., *First year of college teaching. New directions for teaching and learning, No. 17.* San Francisco: Jossey-Bass.

Guidelines for student observers in working with faculty. (1992). (Available from [Carleton College, Learning and Teaching Center, One North College Street, Northfield, MN 55057, (507) 663-5601])

Helling, B. (1988, Spring). A philosophy and a program for the observation of teaching. *Faculty Development*, p. 3.

Rhem, J. (Ed.). (1993). Paying students to observe teaching. *The National Teaching & Learning Forum, 3*(2), 4-6. (Available from [ERIC Clearinghouse on Higher Education, One Dupont Circle, Suite 630, Washington, D.C. 20036-1183])

Rost, A. (1991, March 15). Student observers provide feedback for faculty members. *Manitou Messenger*, p. 2. (Available from [B. Helling, Teaching and Learning Center, St. Olaf College, Northfield, MN 55057])

Scafe, J. (1993, June). *Student Observer Program: End-of-the-Year Report.* (Available from [Carleton College, Learning and Teaching Center, One North College Street, Northfield, MN 55057, (507) 663-5601])

Sorenson, D. L. (1993a, October). [Unpublished interview with Barbara Helling].

Sorenson, D. L. (1993b). [BYU classroom student observer program evaluations]. Unpublished raw data.

Sorenson, D. L. (1994a). Classroom student observer program: Faculty handbook. (Available from [BYU Faculty Center, 167 HGB, Provo, UT 84602-2710])

Zahorski, K. J. (1993, October 16). *Involving students in faculty development: A matter of value and values.* Paper presented at the 18th Annual Conference of the Professional and Organizational Development Network in Higher Education, Rochester, MN.

Resources

Instructional developers interested in considering the implementation of a student observer/consultant program may find inspiration in the following readings:

Helling, B., & Kuhlmann, D. (1988). Faculty visitor program: Helping teachers see themselves. In K. Lewis, & J. Povlacs (Eds.), *Face to face* (pp. 103-119). Stillwater, OK: New Forums Press.

Palmer, P. J. (1983). *To know as we are known: A spirituality of education.* San Francisco: Harper.

Sorenson, D. L. (1994b). Classroom student observer program: Student observer handbook. (Available from [BYU Faculty Center, 167 HGB, Provo, UT 84602-2710])

BYU student observers receive the following list of suggested outside readings:

Angelo, T. A. (1993). A "teacher's dozen." T. J. Marchese, (Ed.), *AAHE Bulletin*, 45(8).

Bell, E. (1993, Fall). Sightings from my rearview mirror: Reflections on thirty years of teaching. *Focus on Faculty.* (Available from [BYU Faculty Center, 167 HGB, Provo, UT 84602])

Fink, L. D. (1994). *Instructional consulting: A guide for developing professional knowledge*. Manuscript submitted for publication.

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Metaphors of Teaching: Uncovering Hidden Instructional Values

Darlene Hoffman

Millikin University

This paper describes how metaphors of teaching can be used to assist faculty in understanding the assumptions that underlie their teaching behaviors. A problem-based and a values-based model are described. In the problem-based model, there is no assumption of a metaphor. In the values-based model, the metaphors are seen as filters through which all efforts to improve teaching must pass. By understanding these values agendas, faculty consultants will have more success in facilitating teaching effectiveness.

What exactly are instructional values? How do they relate to faculty consulting? In the first session of a nine-week teaching-effectiveness workshop, faculty examined their values by completing the following task:

> Selecting the color of crayon which appeals to you, use words, images, or symbols to draw a picture which represents your conception of teaching. Think of yourself as teaching at your best.

After a few minutes of drawing time, the faculty shared their drawings. They enthusiastically explained their metaphors to the group, using group feedback to refine and expand their ideas.

Next, faculty worked in dyads to discuss the following questions:

What values do you see reflected in your metaphors? Think about the way you teach. How does your teaching reflect your values? What examples can you give that illustrate your metaphor in action?

The metaphor activity resulted in immediate and enthusiastic faculty involvement. Additionally, it provided an integrative focus for discussions throughout the nine-week seminar. Most importantly, however, it revealed instructional values that are a hidden agenda of faculty development activities.

Instructional values affect the way faculty teach, what they expect of their students, and what they expect of themselves as teachers. In fact, most instructional decision making involves values-based decisions. As Raths, Harmin, and Simon (1966), Simon, Kirschenbaum, and Howe (1972), Rokeach (1968), and Holt (1969) have pointed out, values and teaching are inextricably linked. Thus, teachers who want to improve their teaching effectiveness must be assisted in recognizing their own instructional values. The seminar, which was conducted for the first time at Millikin University, revealed that faculty members' values had a direct impact on how they responded to the ideas and information presented in the seminar.

Two Models of Faculty Consulting

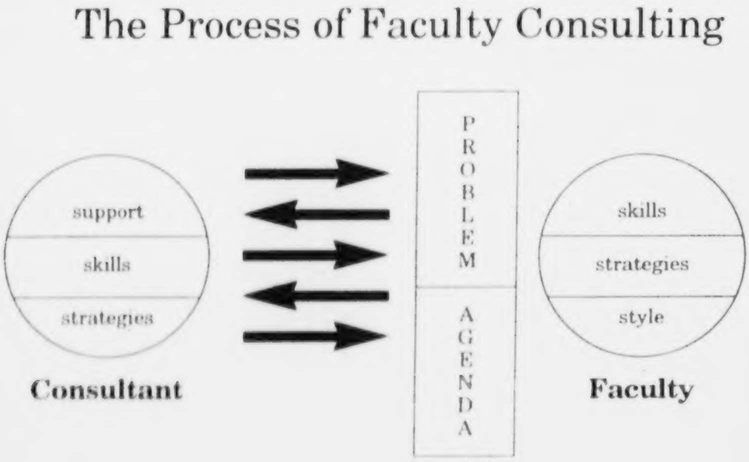
A Problem-Based Model

The teaching-effectiveness seminar began with a model that is quite common among faculty consultants, one much like those described by Shackelford (1993) and Evans and Chauvin (1993). Developing a program for teaching improvement typically begins with understanding faculty concerns and perceived needs or problems and then designing appropriate instructional activities.

Figure 1 shows this Problem-Based Model of faculty consulting. It assumes that a faculty consultant brings to the consulting process a supportive attitude as well as skills and strategies to share with faculty, either individually or in workshops or seminars. Faculty members also bring to the consulting relationship skills and strategies of teaching, as well as their own styles of teaching. Normally, then, the faculty members describe a problem with which they would like to have assistance. The consultant and the faculty members then interact, bringing their knowledge of skills and strategies together to solve the problem.

A teaching effectiveness seminar tailored to the specific needs and interests of faculty can begin with a problem-based model. In the seminar at Millikin University, the faculty consultant asked all participants to complete a survey concerning their level of satisfaction with their skills in 14 different teaching areas (see Appendix A). Prior to the first session of the seminar, participants filled out a questionnaire describing what they hoped to accomplish in the workshop. The syllabus for the seminar, emphasizing the stated interests of the faculty was then developed. Predictably, the participants in this seminar expressed a desire to improve their skills in motivating students, increasing involvement of students in their own learning, learning new teaching strategies, facilitating cooperative learning, and developing more interesting lectures. The stated agendas of the faculty were similar to those identified by Kerwin (1987) as behaviors faculty wanted to develop. Also, the skills with which the faculty were most

FIGURE 1: Problem Based Model



concerned corresponded closely to those characteristics usually associated with skills of effective teachers (Chickering & Gamsen, 1987; Frederick, 1981; Hamachek, 1969).

A Values-Based Model

While the problem-based model seems logical and efficient—after all, faculty developers believe that we begin where the learner is—faculty developers may find that the agendas which faculty describe are not as simple as they first appeared. From the initial discussion of their teaching metaphors, faculty responded to suggestions for improvement more from the perspective of their underlying values than from their original agendas as stated in their written questionnaires.

Throughout each weekly three-hour session, the research on effective teaching that was presented in the workshop was being directly filtered through the instructional values of each of the participants. The methods of facilitating the seminar, as well as the responses of the participants, changed radically as discussions of instructional values became an integral part of the class. A second model for instructional consulting began to emerge.

FIGURE 2: Values-Based Model

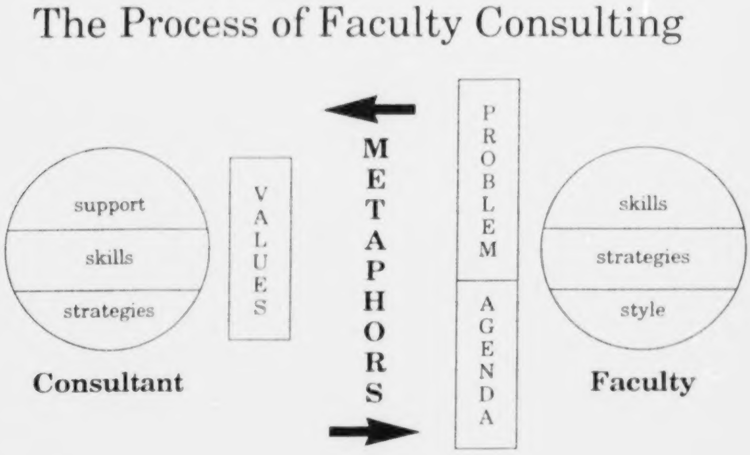


Figure 2 shows a values-based model of faculty consultation. As in the problem-based model, the process begins with a faculty member and a faculty consultant, both possessing skills and strategies. The faculty member brings a problem or agenda for which the consultant offers support. In the values-based model, there is a filter of values or instructional metaphors, which will be explored by the faculty and the faculty consultant in order to better understand what is needed for instructional improvement. In this filter are the metaphors of both the faculty member and the faculty consultant. As the two parties consider the faculty's problem through the filter of their metaphors, receptivity to suggestions and openness to change are more likely to develop.

Outcomes of Using the Values-Based Model

Table 1 shows three professors' initial description of class agendas, their style of teaching, their metaphors, and changes in attitudes or behaviors which occurred as the class progressed. It illustrates the contrast between the problem or class goal, as originally stated in the questionnaires, and their metaphors.

Table 1 depicts relationships between the problems which the teachers identified and their style of teaching. The metaphors seemed to provide a more abstract way of exploring the problems. During the last class session Professor A commented, "I have reluctantly decided that if I want students to be excited about chemistry, I have to make a greater effort to make the students feel comfortable at the beginning of their journey."

Better Understanding of Faculty Reactions to Seminar Content

Knowing the faculty's values resulted in a better understanding of their reactions to new materials or ideas. For example, Professor A, in describing the values underlying his metaphors, talked at length about his fascination for his discipline. He remembered being thrilled when he began to understand abstract relationships and to get beyond simple formulas and rote memory into problem solving. Professor A had been an abstract thinker when he entered college, and he, like many faculty in the group, believed that abstract thinking ability should be a college

TABLE 1
Examining the Stated Agendas, the Metaphors, and the Teaching Outcomes

PROBLEM STATEMENT	TEACHING STYLE	METAPHORS	OUTCOMES
PROF. A. CHEMISTRY I think we need to discuss course integrity vs. happy students. I'm being forced to compromise my standards just to get decent evaluations. In the long haul this emphasis on student satisfaction will not be in anyone's best interest. I work hard with no solid results.	Prof. A was a very traditional teacher who lectured, gave homework, went over homework, and lectured. When students did not understand, he became frustrated and critical, convinced that they simply needed to work harder. He was hesitant to try new ideas, but discouraged about student responses.	Prof. A's metaphor was of a teacher as a travel guide—opening students' minds to the excitement of a new land with new symbols, and new ways of viewing things. He envisioned students growing to love the new land and becoming comfortable with the changes it represented.	In sharing his metaphor, he became more aware of his desire for students to like his subject enough to do the work. He began to understand the need to begin at the students' level of knowledge and work to more advanced levels. Microteaching efforts showed enthusiasm and less dictatorial behavior.
PROF. B. ACCOUNTING I'm new to teaching and want to learn better ways to teach. I want to get students to solve problems cooperatively instead of competing. They'll need to learn to work in groups. Cooperative learning might be what I want to learn, but I'm not sure what it is.	Prof. B was popular with his students. He was excited about teaching and eager to learn new ideas. He was known to be a hard taskmaster who gave fair, but difficult tests. He wanted to get students more involved in learning.	Professor B drew small doors opening into larger doors, opening into still larger doors, into an even larger world. The professor opened one door at a time, helping students decide when to open another door, supporting their decisions.	Prof. B was like a sponge, absorbing information and using it immediately with his students. Cooperative learning led to a new metaphor of "heads together with an illuminated lightbulb of insight." He designed several new problem activities for his students.
PROF. C., EDUCATION With all of the new certification requirements, it gets worse every year that I teach. I just can't fit in everything they need to know. I can't get the students involved. They need to know more when they go out to teach. I can't cover it all! I feel behind from the first day of class.	Prof. C was very intense in her lectures. She tried to tell students everything they needed to know. She cut discussions short in the need to cover more content. She was upset when her student teachers had problems in teaching. Her answer to almost any student question was to provide more information.	Prof. C drew a stick figure teacher, connected with ribbon-like threads to many slightly smaller stick figures. Those stick figures held ribbons in one hand to the teacher and reached out with the ribbons to still smaller stick figures. She said she was building links from her students to their students.	Using her metaphor, Prof. C was asked to describe what she wanted the middle link in the chain to do that they don't do; she discussed the need to problem solve, to respond on-their-feet; she designed activities based on hypothetical student problems, requiring students to use materials from their text to support their suggested responses.

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entrance requirement. Discussions of Perry's (1970) description of the dualistic nature of the thinking of younger college students were stimulating. Instead of getting bogged down in discussions of what college freshmen should be like, faculty were more willing to consider which aspects of their disciplines could provide good examples of different levels of reasoning that might help their younger students advance cognitively. Returning to his metaphor, Professor A acknowledged that not all travelers would be equally ready to travel in a new land and that some would require more assistance than others to feel comfortable in their travels.

Faculty Refer to Values in Giving Feedback

Faculty also talked with other faculty in relation to values. Each faculty member was asked to do two microteaching sessions. Additionally, each individual brought a 10-minute taped excerpt of an actual class. It was not unusual for faculty to be unduly critical of their own teaching. In her microteaching segment, Professor C was very critical of her lecture, maintaining that it covered too little material. Although the faculty suggested that they had needed more time to absorb what she was teaching and to take notes, Professor C did not seem to hear them. Finally, one faculty commented, "You talked about forming links from you, to your students, to their students. How will covering more material help you build the links you talked about?" Most faculty have concerns about "covering the material" vs. "teaching the students," but as Professor C struggled to answer the question, the focus shifted from looking at what the teacher was doing to discussing what the students were learning.

Faculty View New Strategies as Values-Based

Professor B, with his stated agenda of wanting to learn new ways to teach cooperation and his metaphor of assisting students to open larger and larger doors to the world, is actually representative of several of the faculty whose goals for the class were related to their ideals of teaching. Professor B was open to new and different ways of teaching, particularly to those which emphasized cooperative problem solving; thus, the instructional task with Professor B felt more straightforward, more initially similar to the problem-based model. On the other hand, as he reviewed and applied cooperative learning strategies, Professor B's discipline of accounting still provided a filter which needed to be understood. He frequently raised questions concerning how group strategies worked when the problem solutions were quantitative and required precise answers, rather than creative thinking. In this case, the values filter was provided by the individual and by the nature of his discipline. In recognizing the needs of his discipline, it was possible for him to design appropriate kinds of cooperative learning experiences.

Integrating Metaphors Into the Values-Clarification Paradigm

In thinking about the role that understanding values can play in faculty consulting, it is helpful to examine the steps of values clarification as identified by Simon, Kirschenbaum, and Howe (1972). It certainly is not the role of faculty consultants to try to change faculty values to be more similar to their own. It may be helpful, though, to encourage faculty to be aware of their own values and to relate those to their teaching behaviors. Instructional metaphors can be a vehicle for that process. Applying Simon, Kirschenbaum, and Howe's paradigm for values clarification to teaching metaphors, the steps might be as follows:

Step 1: *Create faculty awareness of their metaphors and assumptions about effective teaching.* Simply asking faculty to draw their metaphors of teaching and share those with others encourages them to display pride and satisfaction with their images and have an increased awareness of the values that their metaphors represent.

Step 2: *Encourage faculty to expand their metaphors.* In sessions which followed the initial metaphor activity, faculty referred back to their metaphors, adding and/or revising them based on discussions and learning activities.

Step 3: *Assist faculty in examining the values content of their teaching behaviors.* Microteaching procedures provided faculty an opportunity to explore consistency between their stated values and their teaching behaviors. As described earlier, other faculty encouraged Professor C to examine her teaching behaviors in relation to her metaphor. By engaging in the simple process of drawing a metaphor before microteaching, faculty recognized the possibility of dissonance between their values and their actual teaching behaviors.

Step 4: *Introduce new metaphors and models of teaching.* It is not unusual for faculty to teach as they were taught, particularly in relation to their chosen discipline. As new strategies are introduced in workshops and seminars, it is natural to explain the purpose of each strategy. Referring to the values which underlie the strategy or asking faculty to relate the new approach to a metaphor or value might develop faculty awareness of their opportunities for choice.

Step 5: *Assist faculty in integrating new metaphors with their original ones.* In the final workshop session, faculty used their own ideas — as well as feedback from other faculty — to develop a self-portrait of themselves as teachers. In the process of describing themselves, most referred back to their metaphors and suggested ways they had changed or added to their original image.

Step 6: *Encourage written commitments to significant values.* Values commitment is a culminating step in Simon's paradigm. In the seminar, teaching portfolios were introduced as a way of representing their beliefs and efforts as teachers. As a group, the workshop participants discussed the possibility of including their metaphors of teaching in their teaching portfolios.

Conclusion

Metaphors of teaching represent one simple way to encourage faculty to explore and commit to a set of instructional values. Values become the filter through which faculty relate to the skills and strategies which faculty consultants introduce. What is important for faculty developers is to realize that by assisting faculty to become aware of their assumptions about what matters in teaching, the developers are actually increasing the potency of their efforts to increase teaching effectiveness.

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APPENDIX A

How Do You Rate Your Teaching Skills?

School: ___Arts & Sciences; ___Business; ___Music; ___Nursing;
Years of Teaching Experience: ___1 to 3; ___4 to 6; ___7 to 10;
___11 or more;

The skills below are often associated with teaching effectiveness. For each skill area, rate yourself according to the following scale:

- Mark 4 if you feel **very satisfied** with your competence in this skill area.
- Mark 3 if you feel **satisfied** with your competence in this skill area.
- Mark 2 if you feel **dissatisfied** with your competence in this skill area.
- Mark 1 if you feel **very dissatisfied** with your competence in this skill area.
- Mark N if you feel **uninterested** because particular skill area is not one which you usually use in your teaching or because it is a skill which does not seem appropriate to your field.

____1. KNOWLEDGE OF SUBJECT MATTER (how comfortable are you with your knowledge of the material you teach? how up-to-date?)

____2. ABILITY TO COMMUNICATE WITH STUDENTS (how skilled are you at giving and receiving information? how well do you adapt your material to student levels?)

____3. GLOBAL PLANNING SKILLS: (how satisfied are you with your syllabus? your overall course content? your ability to set and meet long term goals?)

____4. LECTURING SKILLS (how satisfied are you with your ability to promote student learning through the use of lecture?)

____5. SMALL GROUP TEACHING (how satisfied are you with your efforts to use small group methods to promote student learning?)

____6. INDIVIDUAL LESSONS OR TUTORING (how satisfied are you with your ability to conduct one-on-one instruction with students?)

____7. LABORATORY WORK (how satisfied are you with your ability to promote student learning through laboratory or clinical experiences?)

____8. USING A VARIETY OF LEARNING ACTIVITIES (how satisfied are you that your classes incorporate a variety of learning activities appropriate to student interests, learning styles, and ability levels?)

____9. INCORPORATING INNOVATIVE TEACHING STRATEGIES (How satisfied are you with your efforts to use new and innovative teaching strategies?)

____10. MOTIVATIONAL SKILLS (how satisfied are you with your ability to stimulate student interest and motivation to learn?)

____11. EVALUATION AND TESTING (how confident do you feel that your exams/projects/assignments actually assess student learning?)

____12. ESTABLISHING RAPPORT WITH STUDENTS (do students trust/sense your concern for their learning?)

____13. PROVIDING FOR INDIVIDUAL DIFFERENCES (How skillful are you at tailoring your teaching to the needs of the individuals in your classes? Are you satisfied that you create a warm climate for minority students?)

____14. OVERALL TEACHING EFFECTIVENESS (how satisfied are you with your teaching skills?)

The Game of Academic Ethics: The Partnering of a Board Game

Stephen E. Sugar

University of Maryland, University College

Carol A. Willett

University of Virginia

A developer of classroom games agrees to a challenging assignment: to develop a classroom board game on the topic of academic ethics. This paper describes how, in partnership with a content expert, he successfully developed and piloted the game for adjunct faculty at the University of Maryland, University College. The two developers, cited as game writer and content expert, work through a variety of design, substance and logistical obstacles to ultimately pilot the game, A Question of Academic Ethics.

It makes me just a wee bit sad
That many lectures go unheard
'Cause teachers lock their message to
The power of the spoken word.

It makes me just a wee bit mad
To see employed for it's own sake
A game or toy or exercise
As stuff to keep a class awake.

So now I ponder, plod and plan
To build those special games that earn
That highest of all accolades:
They join the best of play and learn.

Stephen Sugar

A chance meeting with the Assistant Dean of Faculty Development at the University of Maryland, University College, began it all. An adjunct faculty member with an extensive background in classroom games agreed to develop and deliver a board game on academic ethics to a faculty development workshop 16 weeks hence. He did so knowing that consultants at the Department of Justice had labored for over a year to produce a game on ethical standards, with no conclusion in sight.

The Game Writer's Dilemma

Any successful educational game requires two elements — a coherent, engaging game system with clear rules of play, a lively format, and provocative, well-written questions or case studies that encapsulate the topic. In this case, there were other, complicating conditions. First, ethics is itself a complicated, divisive, and highly politicized topic in today's academic environment. Hardly the stuff of which board games are easily made. Second, the audience (composed of adjunct faculty spanning any number of disciplines) was skeptical, sophisticated, and intolerant of sloppy design. Participants, attending an evening workshop on their own time, expected a strong presentation wrapped in an intriguing board game.

Partnering

Luckily, the game writer unearthed a possible resource—a University of Virginia faculty member who was developing an off-campus course on leadership decision making and ethics. Over lunch, exchanging monographs and resumes with the relish of folks at their twentieth high school reunion, a deal was struck. The game writer would develop the game system consisting of game board, rules of play, and game accessories. The instructor, in the role of content expert, was to develop question materials in the form of case studies based on ethical problems in and out of the classroom. This was a multidisciplinary leap of faith as the instructor knew little about the principles of game design, and the game writer had never formally studied ethics.

The Content Expert's Dilemma

To the uninitiated, a game seems like a simple thing: certainly no great challenge compared to preparing a fifteen-week extension course on ethics. This is only so for those who have never tried to write game questions or case studies for a game format. In the argot of game writers, someone who is well versed in a subject becomes a content expert. The expectation is that they, like a spigot, can easily be turned on and off, producing on demand a stream of concise, unambiguous questions to which there is always a "best", "next best" and "worst" answer to match a sliding point scale based on the relative merits of each answer. This is relatively easy in discussions about geography; it is tortuous in discussions about ethical alternatives. In ethics there are few absolute "right" or "wrong" answers, but an infinitude of "it depends". Moreover, little has been published on academic ethics per se. The challenge became one of finding a way to cast typical classroom problems and decisions in ethical terms. In the end, each situation was tested against the same set of ethical factors to determine the "best", "next best" and relatively "worst" answers. These factors included:

- Consideration for equity and fairness
- Concern for the example being set
- Concern for consistency betweens the end sought and the means used
- Whether position and power were exploited for private gain
- Whether conflicting or differing opinions were sought and considered
- Extent to which implications and trade-offs were fully considered

- Whether the decision led to the greatest good (or the least pain) for the greatest number.

The Game Plan

The topic was complicated, the workshop was limited to three hours, and the goal was to facilitate a discussion while keeping a spirit of play. This posed several challenges. The game had to be sufficiently attractive to encourage participation, simple enough for participants to quickly understand the rules and track their progress, and flexible enough to allow credit based on interpretation and evaluation of the case studies. It had to focus on one case study at a time but allow for a balance of instructor control and interactive discussion among players. The game writer found a solution in a race track format in which teams compete to reach the finish, moving forward three spaces for a "best" answer, one space for the "next best," and standing still for selecting the "worst" of three alternatives. Participants were clustered into groups of three or five players to promote interaction and to prevent tie votes. In each round of play, teams read the case, voted on a collective answer, and were awarded spaces by the game writer. The content expert then facilitated a discussion of the ethical principles involved. She led the participants in exploring the implications and trade-offs involved and encouraged faculty members to share how they dealt with these issues in their classrooms each day.

Academic Ethics in the 1990's

On campuses across America traditional interactions among faculty and students, parents, alumni, administrators, and other faculty are being reexamined in the light of heightened sensitivity to diversity, political correctness, warring pedagogical theories, and enormous pressures on urban campuses to meet the varied expectations of adult learners. Clearly, there is a need to develop ways and means to discuss ethical standards that do not further strain the environment but elicit and balance differing opinions on what constitutes fair and equitable practices. Drawing on the classics of ethical philosophy, the lessons learned from seventeen years of undergraduate and postgraduate teaching, and media coverage of a variety of academic scandals, the content expert generated 40 abbreviated case studies. From these, 20 were selected for the game. These cases prompted participants to question whether the instructor in each case behaved in ways that were equitable, whether they set an appropriate example, and whether their actions were consistent with the goals of learning and the values of the institution in which learning was supposed to take place. Teams debated how well the individual in the various cases balanced the implications and trade-offs of their decisions, whether they sought appropriate advice and counsel, and whether they considered differing opinions. Last but not least, participants debated the components of ethical behavior in an academic setting and the utility of periodically asking oneself, "Is this an ethical thing to do?" These discussions brought forth a wealth of practical examples from the participants illustrating the difficulty of determining what is "right" when there are so many differing interpretations of what is "wrong".

The Game Itself

After a brief introduction to the principles of ethical decision making, the group was prepared for game play: participants were divided into teams; the rules of play were discussed; score sheets were distributed; and the first case study was shown on the overhead projector. Each team was given three minutes to review and then vote on the best answer.

In one case study Professor Smith announces on the first night of class that the syllabus notwithstanding, he requires all students to purchase the latest edition of his seminal work, *The Wizard of Oz: A Mathematical Discourse,* for $85.

Is mandating the purchase of one's own book outside of the university review process:

Ethical
Unethical
Open to Question?

[Answer to "Professor Smith" — Unethical, advance 3; Open to Question, advance 1; Ethical, stay put]
(*See Appendix A for other sample case studies.)

The score sheets were collected and tallied by the game writer while the content expert brought the workshop back to order. The "best" answer was announced, and the free-for-all began. Participants vied to air what they liked and disliked about each answer, why their team chose as they did, and how their collective experience(s) either validated or disproved the "best" answer. Approached in this way, every question prompted an exploration of multiple, alternative solutions when confronted with similar ethical dilemmas. For every participant there was a different interpretation of the case study, which led to a rich, sometimes chaotic discussion. While one person focused on the "legality" of Professor Smith acting outside the prescribed limits of university review process, another debated the ethics of academic remuneration and the publish-or-perish imperative. The debate proceeded to touch on copyright issues, the distinctions between research and plagiarism, the differing expectations of the university and students regarding the contractual nature of a syllabus, and what constitutes intellectual property.

By the end of the game participants agreed it was important to develop an ethical framework for decision making in the academic sphere. Quite apart from one's own emotional experience and sense of values, faculty members felt they needed to develop a coherent set of ethical factors they consider in deciding upon the best course of action.

Imbued with the strong desire to win in the game of academic ethics, players challenged not only interpretation of the case material itself, but the method of scoring, the reliability of research data and sources, and the basis for selecting the teams. Everything about the evening was recast as an "ethical question." It was a bit like giving a small boy a hammer: all the world becomes a nail. The volume, vigor, and warmth generated by this discussion resulted in a thoroughly productive debate on the role and effect of academic ethics. Participants commented that the game had focused their attention on the ethical implications of their behavior in and out of the classroom and had helped to generate a series of questions they could use in reaching decisions. The game was unanimously deemed a success.

Lessons Learned

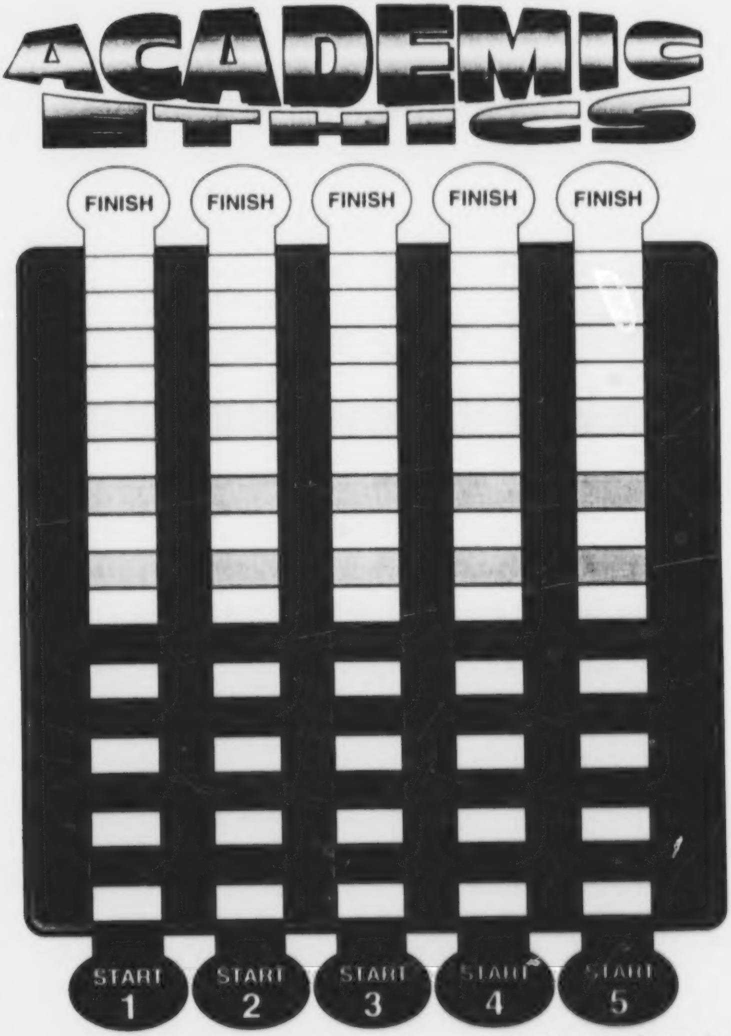
In retrospect, after the workshop concluded and participants critiques had been reviewed, both the game writer and content expert agreed that there were several things they would do differently. First, they would have piloted the game with a test group to assess the relevance of the "best," "next best," and "worst" answers. Disagreement among workshop participants regarding the selection of a "best" answer served to fuel a lively debate about the criteria involved. However, without skilled facilitation, the game could have degenerated into a shouting match. Secondly, pre-testing the game could have helped clear up possible misinterpretations of the case studies and more tightly focused attention on the ethical dilemma involved. Third, both the game writer and content expert agreed that they would greatly reduce the number of cases to allow enough time to fully discuss the implications of each.

Post Script

The Game of Academic Ethics was a success. The workshop evaluations showed that 87% of the participants agreed or strongly agreed that "after taking this workshop, I feel better prepared/more knowledgeable about academic ethics." In addition, comments stated that the most helpful parts of the workshop were "pretty much the whole workshop and discussions, principles of making ethical decisions, and the case-study discussions." (See Appendix E for rest of workshop evaluation.)

The participants enjoyed and learned from the case studies. The game has been used by at least one other faculty member at the University of Maryland, University College, and the game has been shown to three other audiences, including an international conference, with very positive results. In addition, a major publisher has indicated it wishes to include the game format in its fall catalog. Best of all, it was designed in a mere 16 weeks. At last report, the Department of Justice was still working on its ethical standards game.

APPENDIX A
Academic Ethics Gameboard



Gameboard developed by Shoestring Graphics, 1993

APPENDIX B
Rules of Play — A Question of Ethics

Object of Game	To be the first team to advance across the finish line.
Learning Objective	To create a dialogue about academic ethics both in and out of the classroom.
Materials	1 game board transparency; 10 sets of score sheets; 1 set of 4 - 10 questions; 1 overhead projector
Time of Play	45 minutes to 3 hours
Preliminaries	Your class will be divided into teams of three or five members each. Your team will select a number that matches a lane on the gameboard — number 1, 2, 3, 4, or 5. Your team will receive a set of score sheets.

Game Play: Round 1

- The instructor presents a short case study on the overhead. The case can be answered either **Ethical**, **Unethical**, or **Open to Question**.
- Each team will be given 3 minutes to determine their selection.
- Each team records their selection on the score sheet.
- The instructor collects score sheets.
- The instructor gives the preferred alternative, and then the second and third choices.
- Each team advances the number of game board spaces in accordance with the appropriateness of their answer, as follows:

most appropriate answer	advance 3 spaces
second most appropriate answer	advance 1 space
least appropriate answer	stay put

Round 2 to End of Game

Each round is played the same way until the end of the game.

End of Game

- The first team to cross the finish line is declared the winner.
- If no one has crossed the finish line, the team closest to the finish line is declared the winner.

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APPENDIX C
Sample Case Studies

1. Dr. Hiwakawa announces to her postgraduate class that original theme papers (research topics to be assigned by the instructor) will account for 70% of the final grade. Moreover, she informs the class that the best of these themes will be incorporated in a compilation of substantive readings she is under contract to produce for the University Press.

If professors include student-produced research as part of the body of their own, is this:

a. Ethical? b. Unethical? c. Open to Question?

3. Paul Ankara, an adjunct professor, announces early in the semester that as a matter of policy, he grades on a curve and assigns no more than 10% A's in any given class. Mr. Ankara also announces that he is open to negotiation on how these A's may be earned.

Is this practice apt to be construed as:

a. Ethical? b. Unethical? c. Open to Question?

3. Last month's copy of the *New Yorker* had an absolutely perfect cartoon illustrating the central thesis of one of your lectures. In light of copyright law, how would you characterize making a view graph of the cartoon to project one time in class?

a. Ethical? b. Unethical? c. Open to Question?

Key

#1 — Open to Question, advance 3, Ethical, advance 1, Unethical, stay put
#2 — Open to Question, advance 3, Ethical, advance 1, Unethical, stay put
#3 — Ethical, advance 3, Open to Question, advance 1, Unethical, stay put

APPENDIX D
Ethics Reference Materials

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APPENDIX E
Workshop Evaluations

Total number of attendees: 16
Total number of respondents: 10

UNIVERSITY OF MARYLAND UNIVERSITY COLLEGE
THE GAME OF ACADEMIC ETHICS
Thursday, August 5, 1993
Presenters: Steve Sugar and Carol Willett

1. The workshop objectives were clear.

strongly agree	agree	undecided	disagree	strongly disagree
60%(6/10)	40%(4/10)			

2. **The presenters were well-organized, articulate, and supportive.**

Steve Sugar:

strongly agree	agree	undecided	disagree	strongly disagree
80%(8/10)	20%(2/10)			

Carol Willett:

strongly agree	agree	undecided	disagree	strongly disagree
80%(8/10)	20%(2/10)			

3. **After taking this workshop, I feel better prepared/more knowledgeable about academic ethics.**

strongly agree	agree	undecided	disagree	strongly disagree
50%(5/10)	20%(2/10)	10%(1/10)		

Note: Two attendees did not respond.

4. **The parts of the workshop that were the most helpful were:**

a. Pretty much the whole workshop and discussions. x 2
b. Discussions/searching for principles during triads.
c. Principles of making ethical decisions. x 2
d. Academic ethics game.
e. The case-study discussions. x 4
f. Group interaction. Steve and Carol were Super!! Exposure to new ideas and topics.

5. **The parts of the workshop that were least helpful were:**

a. Exposure to only 2 games.
b. Scavenger hunt. x 2
c. Initial game
d. The first exercise.
e. The items that were on the flip chart.

6. **Please use the space on the other side of this sheet to add any additional comments about the workshop or to provide suggestions for future Faculty Development programs.**

a. Excellent presentation!!
b. Excellent. I look forward to the next one.
c. For me religious principles of conscience and community prevail.
d. I would have liked to see inclusion of time for more extensive discussion of actual cases from our own experiences. A handout on details of coypright rules, etc., as applied to the classroom, would be helpful.

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Section II

Including "the Other": Transforming Knowledge and Teaching

In "Implications of Cultural Diversity in American Schools," Johnson Afolayan reminds us of the history of education in the United States and its response to immigration. He suggests that in the past immigrant groups have looked to education as a vehicle through which to "escape poverty." Education has responded by insisting that immigrants adapt to the United States culture. Afolayan contends that education should include the diversity of student backgrounds as a positive element in content and teaching techniques.

A number of articles point to the limitations of a traditional mainstream curriculum. Johnnella Butler eloquently argues that the time has come for U.S. education to include our diversity in our knowledge base and in our teaching. This inclusion of "the other" will transform our curriculum and our teaching. Aubrey and Scott, "Knowledge into Wisdom: the Wise University" and Mintz, "Challenging Values: Conflict, Contradiction, and Pedagogy" describe the limitations of the hegemonic, Western-identified curriculum. Aubrey and Scott argue for institutions of higher education based on a philosophy of wisdom which requires, "a knowledge base (factual and experiential),... an awareness of the contextual nature of knowledge (awareness that one's own views and those of others are interpretations), and an awareness that knowledge is a temporary settlement based on the current best evidence (recognition of uncertainty)." Mintz, through travel and culture studies, reveals the effect of the ethnocentric lens of the "creed of universal knowledge." She concludes by suggesting ways faculty can change their courses and teaching to enrich education through accepting the challenges of contradiction. McGinnis and Maeckelbergh demonstrate the ethnocentricity of human visual perception and argue for increased visual literacy and "sensitivity to the diversity of interpretation."

Knowles, Medearis, and Snell's "Putting Empowerment to Work in the Classroom," Johnston's, "Increasing Sensitivity to Diversity: Empowering Students," and Hilsen and Petersen-Perlman's, "Leveling the Playing Field," describe specific remedies for ethnocentrism in American Indian higher education, the classroom, and student orientation in medical schools respectively.

The Implication of Cultural Diversity in American Schools

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The purpose of this article is to analyze the major factors responsible for the cultural diversity in America and their implications for professional educators. These factors include immigration, communication, linguistic diversity, cultural values, and desegregation. While some educators look to the demographics of the new student population, others consider historical clues as a method of understanding American diversity. Statistics about school achievement and dropout and graduation rates show the disparity among the ethnic groups. The new immigrants and ethnic groups may experience conflict as a result of cultural attitudes of teachers and peers. Individuals cannot be understood unless they are seen against the cultural history from which they have come and in terms of the situation in which they currently live. Because of the diversity in the American population, educators need to be sensitive to the cultural elements that may affect students' performance and self-esteem.

The Implications of Cultural Diversity in American Schools

There is an essential need for sensitive educators in the classrooms. The diversity of the population of educational institutions will continue to increase as we face the last decade of this century. The pluralism and interdependent reality of schools cannot be ignored. The success of schools and educators depends on the understanding that embraces racial, gender, cultural, and attitudinal differences. Any of the demographic differences can be used as an agent of educational disadvantage.

The purpose of this article is to analyze the educational implications of the cultural diversity in American schools. These implications include immigration, communication, linguistic diversity, cultural values, and desegregation.

Immigration

Americans have always believed that education can be a transformational success story and can also offer a way out of poverty. This belief has been legitimated by the experience of two centuries of immigration (Bennett, 1988). The first Europeans settled along the east and west coasts during the 17th century. Ten million Native Americans were displaced by these settlers. In the 1600s, African peoples were brought to America by the Europeans, and by the mid-1800s Chinese began to migrate to America. Between 1900 and 1920 immigrants came mainly from central and southern Europe. The mid-1900s brought an internal migration of Blacks from the rural South to the urban North.

While some educators perceive a newly diverse student population, others look back to history for clues in dealing with diversity (Shane, 1990). Bennett (1988) stated that minorities already make up 28% of the school-age population. The impact of current and future immigration is almost paled by the flood of people that entered America between 1900 and 1910. At that time, 57.8% of pupils in 37 selected large cities were either foreign born or had immigrant parents.

The ethnicity of the current migrating people is different. The 1909 group was mainly of European descent and unskilled. The present immigration wave consists primarily of Hispanic and Asian cultures (Gough, 1988). In 1985, each group commanded 40% of the immigrants. There is conflict as to which ethnic group is fastest growing. Lee and Rong (1988) state that the Asian American population is increasing most rapidly and that no other group boasts of such a highly educated segment. Campbell, Cunningham, Nystrand, and

TABLE 1
Pre-Primary Enrollment (3-5 years old), 1985-1988

Groups	1985	Rate %	1987	Rate %	1988	Rate %
White	4,430	54.7	478	54.1	4,891	55.4
Black	758	55.8	893	54.2	814	48.2
Hispanic	406	43.3	587	45.5	544	44.2

Source: U.S. Bureau of Census

Usdan (1990) argue that the Hispanic population is burgeoning (see Table 1).

The youth of the latest immigration wave is probably its most important characteristic. While the median age of the U.S. population is 32.1, the Hmong median age is 13; Cambodian, 18; Laotian, 19; and Vietnamese, 21. Of the Hispanic immigrants, the median age for Mexicans is 23; it is 27 for Central Americans; and 39 for Cubans. These statistics can be correlated with birthrates. While Americans have an average of 1.7 children, African Americans average 2.4 children; Hmong, 11.9 children; Cambodians, 7.4; Vietnamese, 3.4; and Mexican Americans, 2.9 children. Statisticians, when using the above data, are able to project that by the year 2050, the total population of the United States will be 60% White, 16% Black, 15% Hispanic, and 10% Asian (Kellogg, 1988).

Educational Statistics of Ethnic Groups

In the past, American classrooms have been composed of the rich, the poor, and the in-between. The students' parentage has been both educated and unskilled. Teachers have taught well through war, depression, civil unrest, and times of prosperity. The diversity which the educators face today is one that differs only by degree and detail (Bennett, 1988).

Between 1982 and 1987, the number of students from all ethnic and racial groups who possessed high school diplomas doubled (Lewis, 1989). One quarter of all students taking the SAT were ethnic minorities. The scores earned on this test have risen for these ethnic groups during the last 10 years. While Whites raised their average

TABLE 2
American College Testing for College Bound Students, 1984-1988

Participants	1984	1985	1986	1987	1988
White	46%	46%	46%	46%	46%
Black	82%	82%	82%	81%	81%

Source: U. S. Bureau of Census

scores on the verbal portion of the exam by two points, African American students raised their verbal scores by 21 points; Asian Americans raised their scores by 13 points; and Hispanics by 13 points. On the mathematics portion of the test, Caucasians' scores increased nine points; African Americans' scores, 28 points; Asian Americans' scores, 14 points; and Hispanics' scores, 20 points (Washington Windmill, 1990) (see Table 2).

Dropout rates reflect both good and bad news for minorities. The Asian Americans have the lowest dropout rate of all ethnic groups with only the Vietnamese falling below the Whites' dropout rate (Lee & Rong, 1988). The dropout rate among African American students is also declining, making the difference between the African American and White figures only 2% now, compared to 12% 20 years ago (Lewis, 1989). However, Hispanics continue to have an appalling dropout rate. At 35.7%, this is almost triple that of Whites and more than double the dropout rate for African American students. Education Secretary Lauro Cavazos, himself of Hispanic origin, regarded the situation as a national tragedy.

Ethnic minorities are usually overrepresented in disability groups. According to the Office for Civil Rights, in the school year 1986-87, minority students made up 30% of all public school students but accounted for 42% of educable mentally retarded (EMR) students, 40% of trainable mentally retarded (TMR), and 35% of those seriously emotionally disturbed. These uneven statistics are often blamed on cultural biases (Washington Report, 1988). Those who adhere to the multicultural educational paradigm of cultural deprivation (Banks, 1988) must find confirmation in these statistics. Thus, programs like Head Start receive federal funding. President Bush transmitted legislation that increased Head Start funding for the fiscal year 1990 by $250 million.

Asian Americans, conversely, are at the other end of the scale when it comes to learning disability groups. In 1984, the percentage of Asian Americans in such groups was 1.6, as compared to 4.2 for Whites.

College graduation rates also show disparity among ethnic groups. In 1980, 17% of all white males age 25 and over had finished college. Thirty-two percent of all Asian Americans had earned higher education degrees (Lee & Rong, 1988). However, 1989 found that while all higher education enrollment was up, especially for women, degrees earned by African American men had decreased. The number of African American women in college increased from 563,000 to 645,000, while the number of African American men on campus fell by 40,000 to 436,000 (Washington Windmill, 1989).

Statistics can be helpful only when they provide the basis for careful thought, review, and evaluation. Now, I will present some of the factors and educational paradigms that may account for these figures.

Education and Linguistic Diversity

When one speaks of communication in a culturally diverse society, the prevalent thought is that of language differences. In fact, some educators and administrators attribute poor achievement by ethnic pupils strictly to an inability to function in a language that is not their native tongue. Thus, we have the language paradigm (Banks, 1988).

Language is a primary obstacle to communication. In California alone, more than 70 languages are represented in the schools (Olsen, 1988). Through American history, immigrants have brought their native tongues, but those languages had common characteristics like Latin roots and the Roman alphabet. Spanish is one of them. However, the native tongues brought by the recent influx of Asians bear little resemblance to the English language. The sentence structure is foreign, as are the alphabetic letters used. The Haitians only developed a written language half a century ago, and only within the last 30 years have the Hmong begun to write in their language (Kellogg, 1988).

Little or no English is usually spoken in the homes of the immigrants. A child may not find his or her home a suitable place to rehearse his or her infant English skills. The burden remains upon the school (First, 1988). An underfunded inner-city school may often face the paramount task of communicating with students of 40 or 50 different languages. When the standard English as a Second Language (ESL) programs came up short, a new program "English Plus" was developed by the League of United Latin American Citizens. This system shows respect for a student's primary language and culture (First, 1988). This thinking combines the Language Paradigm with that of the Cultural Differences Paradigm and provides for programs that incorporate and integrate cultural practices and ethnic content into the mainstream curriculum (Banks, 1988). The combination of these paradigms seems to work better than a strictly bilingual approach. Alicia Coro, Director of Bilingual Programs for the Office of Education, vowed not to enroll her own children in a traditional bilingual education program. She defends the Republican administration's plan to liberalize the federal bilingual education law so that school systems, at their discretion, can use money for nontraditional approaches to learning (Washington Report, 1988).

One paradox of our society is that while we are emphasizing the need to study foreign languages in the schools, particularly at the high school level, we are not cultivating the natural language resources of our own multiethnic children. These students, when forced to communicate and compete in English, often lose the literacy of their own native tongues and, in turn, all their cultural norms.

Cultural Communications

In the schools and classrooms in which a student's culture is viewed as a rich and valuable resource, there is an exciting added dimension to the educational experience. Communication reaches limitless possibilities. Difference is perceived with respect. Cultural distinctions should not interfere with character development, but rather, enhance students' values.

Cultural differences do account for varied learning styles and may affect classroom performance. Young immigrants may experience conflict as a result of cultural misunderstandings. For example, in a California classroom, a Cambodian child became hysterical during a lively spelling lesson. Her teacher was playing "Hangman" with the spelling words, and the little girl was reliving the haunting scene of her father's execution (Olsen, 1988). One Chinese father beat his daughter and forced her to do her homework twice each night. She had brought home a report card with three "S's," and since the father knew that the school grading system began with "A" and progressed downward in deficiency, he thought his daughter had performed horribly (Olsen, 1988).

Although teachers cannot be expected to learn everything about every culture, they should be sensitive to children and have a desire to be a positive, nonthreatening influence. An effective teacher will be motivated to research the cultural norms her children bring into the classroom so that she may communicate effectively. Crossed fingers, a sign of good luck used by native-born Americans, is an obscene gesture in Southeast Asia (First, 1988). Motioning a person to come by beckoning with an index finger is an insult to Asians. White means mourning in Vietnam and China, and an owl means death (Yao, 1988).

The way in which a child receives family support in education is critical. Those of multicultural backgrounds who learn to communicate well in America often feel the weight of the whole family group. They must do well. Immigrant parents often do not understand the new culture of which their children want to become a part—a culture where ideas are questioned and extracurricular activities are applauded (Divoky, 1988). Asian parents are hesitant to challenge a teacher's authority, and parent-teacher conferences are considered disrespectful (Yao, 1988). These cultural communications and expectations should be shared at teacher seminars and conferences.

Thomas Jefferson's definition of education included moral and intellectual improvement. The American people, according to a 1984 Gallup Poll, still expect the schools to aid students in developing reliable standards of right and wrong (Bennett, 1988). Schools do provide moral education. This morality is most often in unwritten codes. It is seen in the way teachers treat minority students, the handicapped, and those others that are part of diverse groups. Teachers may take a direct approach to the subject or may choose indirect approaches such as values clarification (Benninga, 1988). Former Secretary Bennett (1988) takes the more direct approach. He observed that several lessons may be learned from classic literature. When we want to teach our children to respect the rights of others, we should have them read the Declaration of Independence, the Gettysburg Address, and Reverend Dr. Martin Luther King's Letter from the Birmingham City Jail. No matter what approach the teacher chooses, communication among multiethnic groups can extend beyond cultural boundaries when positive values are taught and exemplified.

School Desegregation

The Supreme Court's 1954 *Brown v. Board of Education* decision finally mandated equal access to education. However, not all desegregation provided equality and, in fact, often perpetuated discrimination. When one small rural school was desegregated, the African American students, who were perceived by their white teachers as having low ability, were placed in separate classrooms and labeled as educationally impaired (Goetz & Breneman, 1988). The African American parents felt the loss of sharing with their children the African American cultural heritage and traditional values. An integrated classroom goes beyond a desegregated one. It involves not only addressing numbers of multiethnic students, but also attempting to portray this diversity in its staff and curriculum.

The Radical Paradigm portrays an opposite view of communication among ethnic groups. This theory says that schools cannot free victimized cultural groups because the schools support such behaviors. A recent ethnographic study of a junior high school showed that although students came to the school with hopeful visions of the future, the school, in actuality, did not show them how to handle life's experiences. Instead, the school made them subordinate to its social class position (Grant, 1988).

Educational Implications

As society moves ahead, some citizens are isolated and left behind, in some cases by choice, but for the most part, by the deliberate intentions of those possessing political and economic power. The resulting disadvantaged groups are found frequently among the ethnic minority groups. Their lives are limited by poverty, insecurity, lack of education, and social changes. All ethnic minority groups — African American, Appalachian White, Puerto Rican, American Indian, Cuban, Mexican-American, and other new immigrants — find themselves still bound by the status of their social class. Their search for more satisfactory living conditions, better jobs, and improved education for their children has frequently resulted in economic problems.

Education is perceived to be the only way to escape poverty. Therefore, the major emphasis is concentrated on educational goals. The Johnson Administration allocated federal funds to improve education for the poor children in order to give them the opportunity to escape future deprivation and misery. President Johnson said, "With education, instead of being condemned to poverty and idleness, young Americans can learn the skills to find a job and provide for a family" (Jeffrey, 1978, p. 3).

Rippa (1984) gave a typical analysis of the problems and the cultural incompatibility of the disadvantaged in our contemporary society. The obvious implication of such a view was that poor people needed help. They needed to change their values, habits, and their impoverished culture. Their family structure was unstable, and family members were unable to communicate in a normal fashion. The children had become the victims of the dysfunctional situation because they lacked the toys, physical surroundings, and the attention that were available to the middle-class family children. No wonder the typical culturally different children have been disadvantaged by the time they reach school. Not only did they lack the basic life experiences needed for learning, but also they missed the important awareness of schooling.

For a person to put forth the effort to learn and to be actively involved in it, that person must perceive the learning task as significant and worth doing. As people attempt to learn, they must recognize that they are making progress and that they are becoming successful in doing what they have undertaken. They should obtain satisfaction from this success. Education must be recognized by students as a means to help them deal with life, and the curriculum must be designed to serve this purpose (Tyler & Matthews, 1971).

In discovering all these realities, a teacher learns that individuals cannot be understood unless they are seen against the history from which they have come and in terms of the situation in which they currently live. In a good atmosphere a child can catch the excitement of new things, new ideas, and answers to some confusing and troublesome thoughts. Schools can be a place for making discoveries, for learning, and for satisfying one's curiosity about all kinds of things. Above all, it must be a place where important people care about, respect, and help children feel worthy and accepted (Hamlin et al., 1967).

Multicultural education means educating everyone in a way that promotes equality, unity, acceptance, and understanding so that each individual can develop a positive self-image to help him or her have an equal opportunity for success. Multicultural includes everyone, whether Black, White, rich, poor, handicapped, male, female, Alabamian, Californian—everyone is multicultural in the fact that we all have differences. Because students are so diverse, it is the job of the educators to provide each with an equal opportunity for a good education. The teacher has the greatest opportunity to help in achieving this.

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A Report Card for Diversity

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This article was originally prepared for and presented as the keynote address for the 1993 POD conference. As an assessment of where we are and need to go intellectually in efforts to incorporate diversity into the liberal arts curriculum, it argues for the recognition of the multiple, connected stories in our national story, in order to allow for a transformation in our teaching, our curricula, and in the structure of colleges and universities that moves us to an individualism defined and supported by collective, shared memory, thereby promoting the generative learning necessary to the evolution of a just, plural society.

I have been a little concerned the past few years with how diversity in higher education runs the risk of becoming meaningless. By this, I mean it frequently becomes something through which we look at all experiences equally, tending to forget the quest for knowledge that is at the center. We seem to have lost a sense of our U.S. American context, a context that carries its perspective even as we attempt to address diversity globally. I want to share my ideas with you as to how we can place or position the work, the various work that we do in higher education that is concerned with diversity, in a context that will inform our strategies, inform our processes, inform the way we restructure the institution, inform the way we teach our classes.

In the early years of this century, Langston Hughes wrote a poem reminding us of the scope and depth of the Negro past. Like many African American, Asian American, American Indian, and Chicano/Latino cultural expressions, it is taught, when it is taught, only as specific to and particular to its racial/ethnic experience. Somehow, it is very difficult, if it happens at all, for a cultural expression, an historical event of U.S. people of color to be seen as both particular to their experience and to a larger collective U.S. American experience. Some of you may know the poem:

> Ive known rivers:
> I've known rivers ancient as the world and
>   older than the flow of human blood in human veins.
> My soul has grown deep like the rivers.
>
> I bathed in the Euphrates when dawns were young.
> I built my hut near the Congo and it lulled me to sleep.
> I looked upon the Nile and raised the pyramids above it.
> I heard the singing of the Mississippi when Abe
>   Lincoln went down to New Orleans, and I've
>   seen it's muddy bosom turn all golden in the sunset.
>
> I've known rivers:
> Ancient dusky rivers.
>
> My soul has grown deep like the rivers.

How can that poem become *our* poem? How, for example, can the history of Japanese Americans placed into internment camps become *our* story? How can the caring and work it takes to help the thirteen year-old gang member who pleaded with my colleague in an interview in D.C., "Please don't forget us?" — how can the caring, sacrifice, and dedicated work it will take to help him, and others like him — be *our* responsibility? How can the taxes we need to pay to give healthcare to the poor, malnourished children in Appalachia, or just down the street from us, be *our* responsibility?

Curriculum transformation, a term that has evolved from our efforts over the years to incorporate white women, women of color, men of color into the largely white male curriculum in higher education, represents a strategic, heartfelt effort towards the goal of U.S. citizens knowing that they have one big story composed of many stories: some not quite as big, almost as big, small, and some very small. Fourteen years ago, I completed my dissertation which later became a book, *Black Studies: Pedagogy and Revolution*, widely read in Black Studies circles and used in graduate seminars on pedagogy and literature for the five years it remained in print. This study examines the conceptualizations of American and African American identity in African American literature, as well as the ways African American literary and cultural expression challenges the resulting dichotomies. These challenges, and African American alternatives to them, formed the foundation of the pedagogy I described, based in Freirian liberation pedagogy in an American context. What I envisioned then, what I called "revolution," is what I more aptly and precisely named "transformation" in my more recent work.

This transformation — begun with the 1960s push by African-Americans for access to desegregated higher education — and then for Black Studies, began today's movement to address what we call "diversity in higher education." As a college student in the 1960s, I knew that a great deal was missing from my education. I intuited that once the missing information and ideas were raised and addressed, the very fabric, if you will, the shape, the texture, the content of the liberal arts would have to change. I wondered, for example, about the South American writers of African descent and the Afro-Latino folktales and cultural ways that were missing in my study of what was then called "Spanish American Literature." I knew that if those silenced writers were read in our courses and if the African influence in the folkculture of Latin American literature were examined, the courses in my minor would have to change significantly. Likewise, I knew that if we had studied not only *Othello* in my Shakespeare course, but also the Moors' occupation of Spain, that Othello would not remain the oddity, the aberration that he appeared to be. In other words, courses would be transformed. Our approach to knowledge and information would be transformed. We would seek out the connections and interconnections in history, cultural expression, the sciences, the social sciences. We would not shy from what appeared different and would not only embrace and feel comfortable with what seemed similar to what we already knew. We would begin to understand that there are unities and diversities; that synthesis, while it may be desirable, is not always immediately possible; and that, therefore, we may have to — and may even want to — live frequently with the tensions of contradictions, growing through the ideas of situations those tensions generate. And this is what I meant, then, by "revolution" and now by "transformation."

We have many terms to define and describe our attempts to reckon with the diversity of this nation. We want to incorporate diversity into higher education. We want to advance multiculturalism as an approach to teaching. Ten years ago in Women's Studies we wanted to balance the curriculum in reference to gender, to advance curriculum integration in reference to gender. Around the same time we wanted to mainstream women into the curriculum. We can trace the beginnings of advocacy of pluralism in American higher education to the early years of this century; yet, the most immediate beginning of what some call today's multicultural movement was initiated by legal cases begun by black Americans in the 1920s seeking the right to education. Those long, hard battles fought over the years by Charles Houston, Constance Baker-Motley, Justice Thurgood Marshall, attorney Jack Greenberg, among others, culminated in the sixties in access to higher education for Black Americans. The law was quickly extended to women and other minorities, as the term was then.

Black students on overwhelmingly white campuses demanded Black Studies. They wanted to know their history, an ignored history, the exclusion of which left big unanswered questions and huge gaps in what we called "American History." That demand was quickly imitated and emulated. White women demanded Women's Studies; Puerto Ricans, Puerto Rican Studies; Asian Americans, Asian American Studies, and so forth. Those demands to develop scholarship further and to address experience in scholarship should be viewed as very important, even central, to our efforts today to address diversity in higher education. The resulting fields of study are central to curriculum and institutional transformation. If, indeed, we are serious about meeting the needs of our rapidly changing student population in order that they may have productive lives, hold jobs in a reasonably safe, vibrant society, then we must keep the vision of one big, shared U.S. story that has multiple complementary and conflictive stories as we seek to define relationships between Student Affairs and Academic

Affairs, as we seek to help TAs teach composition classes and help faculty improve their classroom climate.

I will outline the contour and context of that big story. Then, I will offer a few suggestions to you. My remarks reflect the definition of curriculum transformation that is, in its broadest sense, the rethinking and recasting of what and how we teach in order to reveal the unity and diversity, the connections and interconnections among that which seems different, in order to comprehend the complexity of the human condition. As Paolo Freire has shown, literacy implies more than the ability to read and count. As the history of American slavery reminds us, learning to read and count were closely connected to the slaves perceiving fully their human condition and the Christian misuse of the Bible to justify slavery. Learning to read and count, we see, led, if not directly to revolt, to an intense desire for freedom. Literacy, then, is inextricably joined with the freedom that is dependent on our knowing one another, becoming conversant with one another, and building on the best of our traditions in the approximation, if not the achievement, of wholeness. We need, then, a sense of a collective story in order to begin to find the balance between our physical and our spiritual selves — the balance between the material world and whatever it is, in the many ways we identify it, that is more than our spiritual selves, than our physical selves.

Constantly negotiating for balance between and among opposites is necessary to the ever-evolving, changing context to our collective big story. For example, in my graduate course, American Ethnic Literary Criticism, we struggle with the the multiple literatures in the United States. Those multiple literatures have different and similar standards and aesthetics. So how do we converse, how do we talk about an American aesthetic that is multiple-centered, that is dynamic, that is changing? There is a way to do it, by engaging the complexities of racial, ethnic identities, gender identities, class, sexual identities, as they shape the aesthetic expressions and critical evaluations of those expressions. This must become a part of our literary analyses. We have to engage difference. We have to engage contradiction. We need to carry with us as we try to teach students, prepare syllabi, as we determine process, that we are all part of a huge, deeply flawed, experiment which we must make work for the good of all and not just a few.

From the founding of this nation to the present day, the United States has been described as The Great Experiment. The Experiment would demonstrate whether or not Europeans of diverse backgrounds could establish a nation characterized by religious and ethnic tolerance. These Europeans were essentially Northern Europeans, mostly of English and Dutch descent. With the arrival of Europeans from Ireland, Italy, and Poland in the mid and late nineteenth century, The Experiment was severely taxed. While free Negro and White abolitionists had protested the enslavement of Black people and the severe racism and discrimination against free Negroes since the seventeenth century, the severe test of this experiment brought about by the arrival of those Europeans coincided with the push toward the emancipation of the enslaved people of African ancestry and the removal of the American Indians from choice territory.

In order for The Experiment not to fail, an experiment limited to White people mind you, certain accommodations were made on the basis of race. Very soon, for example, by the early nineteen hundreds, signs such as "No Irish or Dogs Need Apply" disappeared from windows in cities like Boston. And it was not very long before those same Irish people and their descendants, because of the special entry given to them on the basis of race, had infiltrated the political systems in Boston, New York, and Chicago, among other cities, and turned the politics and economies of those cities around to their own, very positive, advantage. Such personages as the Kennedys and the Fitzgeralds of Boston, the late Richard Daley and his son of Chicago, New York's dapper Jimmy Walker, mayor and songwriter, and New York mayor, Bill O'Dwyer, became prominent products of this modification of The Experiment. George Olvany, Chief of Tammany Hall in New York City, boasted in 1932, "The Irish are natural leaders. The strain of limerick keeps them at the top. Even the Jewish districts have Irish leaders. The Jews want to be ruled by them (Walter, p. 50)." In similar fashion, but at a later date, the construction of The Experiment was modified to incorporate the waves of Italian immigrants in the late 1800s and early 1900s. They followed the lead of the Irish. The best known is Carmine DeSapio, who led the Italians to power in New York after World War II, becoming Chief of Tammany Hall in the early 1950s.

No such accommodations or modifications of The Great American Experiment were made for the Asian immigrants, Chinese and Japanese, who began to arrive in significant numbers after the American Civil War. Although they made great contributions in the building of the great Transcontinental Railroad and the development of California, Oregon, and Washington, evidences of their exclusion from The American Experiment are the several agreements and acts severely limiting their immigration. The most stark evidence of their domestic exclusion, of course, is the World War II internment of Japanese Americans.

In the same way that there was no modification of The Experiment for Asian Americans, there was none for Mexican Americans. Common characterizations for the Mexican Americans, said with impunity in the first half of this century, were "Wetbacks," "Greasers," and "Desert Dagos." Their exclusion from The Experiment relegated them to the margins of The American Experiment and confined most to a condition of extended peonage.

For the American Indian, who suffered massacres, the loss of land, rights, and practically all sources of wealth and well-being, The Great Experiment was irrelevant. The same can easily be said for people of African ancestry in the United States who went from slavery to peonage to, what appears to some still to be, permanent second-class citizenship. This Experiment, intended to establish "a city on the hill" (Ronald Reagan used to say "a *shining* city on the hill"), a Western Zion, a Western Garden of Eden, was from the beginning severely flawed, despite its stated goal of inclusiveness and human idealism. It denied, on the basis of a construction of race and racism, the inclusion of men and women of color, those who were here when the Spanish and the English arrived, those whom they brought for enslavement, and those whom they brought for peonage. Clear evidence of this dysfunction is evidenced in the American Constitution when it condoned slavery by allowing it to continue, not mentioning it by name.

Acknowledging the moral contradiction of a democracy built on the enslavement of African peoples and on the near annihilation of the American-Indian; recognizing the connection of that moral contradiction to the development of institutional racism; and understanding the dependent relationship between white privilege and racism, are the lessons of the contour, the context, if you will, of our stories — of *all* our stories. The stories that need to be told, that are being told, are many and myriad. They are male stories, female stories, they are gay and lesbian stories, ethnic stories, racial stories, class stories, stories of differing physical abilities. And our biggest task, I think, is to figure out just what all these stories mean to our work, to our lives, to our conceptualizations of just what this nation is.

At a conference last fall of project directors and participants of eighty campuses that have been funded by The Ford Foundation, an observation I have made through my travels over the past two years was unfortunately confirmed. I mentioned at the beginning of my presentation, that we have become more focused on *how* to be inclusive, to the exclusion of *the why*, of *what*, must change. Participants presented many workshops, mostly focused on how to encourage diversity; how to structure faculty development workshops and seminars; how to recruit faculty of color; how to involve student leadership and diversity initiatives. We were all very much concerned and focused on *the how to*. Few of us had considered *the what* of encouraging diversity of curriculum transformation. We told stories at that conference, yet we shared little, if any, *collective* consciousness. We did not know what *to do* with those stories, just as we frequently do not know what to do with our diversities, once we find ways to acknowledge them. Their *what*, their significance, was not easily, readily available and applicable to *the how*. Many approached addressing diversity on our campuses with the celebratory model, "We're all so different and that's good," and, hence, found it hard to build on commonalities they sensed were there yet had not sought as they sought the differences. They found that their efforts further alienated students one from the other. Others busily strategized for more financial support of faculty development for the hiring of minority faculty, but despaired at the resistances of some faculty and the inability to retain minority faculty in their campus environment.

It turned out to be a successful conference, ultimately, because through two difficult plenary sessions, we came to understand at least three important points:

1. We cannot ignore, avoid, or otherwise diminish the important role of racism (personal or institutional) in defeating our attempts to provide an inclusive, generative curriculum in campus environment. Trying to understand racism does not increase the differences, but rather illuminates the similarities, the commonalities.
2. If we do not recognize and analyze the permeation of racism throughout our campuses, then our efforts for diversity will fail. The physically challenged may be present, provided for, and included, but they may still be subjected to racism or enjoy white skin privilege, depending upon who they are. Gays and lesbians may be rid of experiencing homophobia, but Chicana lesbians and Asian American gays, for example, may still be discriminated against on the basis of color.
3. We should not just add on an American Indian novel or a discussion of the Asian American family to a syllabus, but rather consider the American Indian novel as a part of a multiple-voiced American literature, and Asian-American family structures as a multiple and as part of complex American family structure.

In other words, we learned that we had to begin to *hear* our multiple stories and grapple with the content in our stories, even when that content made us most uncomfortable.

Let me give you two examples and conclude with my sense of what all of this means. Some years ago the movie "The Big Chill" came out. When I saw it, I was struck by how it was presented as *the* story of the sixties, the sexual revolution, the divisiveness of the Vietnam War, the rebellion against authority. For me, and many like me, the sixties meant living through desegregation and its ambiguities. It meant finding the strength and courage to be the first black in my school, the only black in my class, of being directed to eat in the kitchen at a truck stop on my way with my family to my cousin's wedding when our car broke down in the middle of the passage of Voting Rights and Accommodation Acts. It meant not rebelling against authority, but, rather, expecting the law and authority to bring about the justice it promised. My point is not that the Civil Rights and Black Power story of the sixties is more important, but rather, one should not be told without at least the presence, the context, of the other, for they are all very closely intertwined at points. Perhaps this is obvious to me, who had an Irish-American boyfriend who protested the War, rebelled against the Church and his parents, and who found himself punching out his friends when they disrespected me, by calling me, "Johnny's little colored girlfriend." It may be that the connections are obvious to me because of such experiences.

I'm going to refer to a story told at the diversity conference in Seattle last fall, to which I referred earlier. An administrator told it, a Chinese American administrator, and I'll truncate it. He said he told this story at a meeting of administrators in response to someone else trying to explain how they felt uncomfortable on their campus; how they encountered racism on their campus. Growing up in the midwest, he was doing very well in school — was very successful. It came time for the senior prom. He selected someone to ask to the prom. He asked a young girl to the prom, and her parents wouldn't let her go with him because he was Chinese American. Now, the response to his story by the administrators who were discussing diversity was particularly telling. One white administrator stood up and he said, "Well, you know, I know most of the administrators here and most of us didn't have dates to our prom. It's really a problem for administrators to get dates to their prom." Everyone laughed, nodding in agreement. The Chinese American administrator , who had told his story of pain and rejection, was mortified. He said at that moment he understood, even more, the depth of the meaning in other stories that people of color had told at this gathering as an effort to address racism.

We level stories. We level experiences so that the specificity is lost and diminished. However, only by engaging that specificity will we transform ourselves and society. We must seek to understand a story in the context of a shared collective consciousness, name what has happened, and seize the transformative moment of understanding that experience, the pain and the joy of that experience. Thus, we will not move so quickly to be comfortable, to impose a sameness, to ease our discomfort.

So what does all of this mean? I can only begin to say what it means. It means something special to each and everyone of us at a personal level. It means something at an institutional level. It means something in the classroom. It does mean we must engage in an understanding of our history that will provide a context for the work we do, in my case, a context for the work of curriculum change, the context of incorporating diversity into the curriculum, into our pedagogy. Or else, we will simply give voice to a few of those excluded and that voice will be quickly distorted. It means that curriculum transformation must permeate the institution and the entire curriculum. It is not a topic to be studied apart from everything else.

Second, it means that the subject content of Ethnic Studies, African American Studies, American Indian Studies, Asian American Studies, Chicano/Latino Studies, and Women-Studies must be taken seriously as fields of studies with programs and/or departments to generate scholarship in those areas in addition to being simultaneously incorporated into the other disciplines.

Third, in traditional courses, the story of assimilation of the Euro-American must be told. The American Jew story must be told, complete with the meaning of anti-semitism and the paradoxical nature of their U.S. experience: being victims of bigotry and discrimination on the one hand, and enjoying the privileges of white skin on the other. Everyone's story can't be told, as we know, in trying to represent diversity in the classroom. Time and space don't allow. But the *contours* of our collective story can be told, studied, so that the recent Arab American immigrant or Eastern European American immigrant can understand how he or she is experiencing this nation, how he or she is experiencing our institutions and not repeat experiencing the offenses that stem from our keeping ourselves and our stories isolated.

Fourth, it means that race, class, gender, and ethnicity, as four basic and shared components of our human identities, should serve as organizing principles and categories of analysis for curriculum transformation. It means establishing structure to incorporate diversity. Race, class, gender, ethnicity, and other differences function in a matrix-like manner. They are interconnected, shape one another. As we foreground gender, for example, race, class, and ethnicity are connected with gender, alter and affect it. We must find ways in our scholarship, in organizing our campuses to allow for this interconnectedness to be seen. The most accessible example for understanding how we might begin to think, to incorporate this interconnectedness in many other ways in our scholarship, in our daily lives is through, perhaps, the metaphor of the jazz ensemble. If you think of a jazz ensemble, say a piano, a saxophone, a trumpet, and a bass they all play together and, periodically, one of the musicians will step forward and improvise. We call that a solo. But think about it. It is not a solo at all in the true sense of the word. While what the musician plays is very distinguishable from the ensemble's earlier music, it is connected, intertwined, with what came before and with what is supporting him or her during the solo. The solo anticipates what follows when the solo musician steps back into the group. The improvising musician is always aware of what the group is doing. He or she bounces themes, variations, off the group. They interact with and shape one another, even while one is foregrounded. So, too, gender interacts with race, class, and ethnicity. The same holds true when foregrounding race, class, or ethnicity. And the same holds true for our stories. As one story is foregrounded, it is connected with the stories of others we don't even know. It is connected with that big collective consciousness.

Fifth, we must reconceptualize Western Civilization in the context of other stories that interconnect with its story. Historically, and traditionally we have treated Western Civilization as a perfect entity, not affected by other civilizations. In fact, we have denigrated other civilizations claiming their inferiority to ours. We must explain the relationships among imperialism and colonialism, colonization and racism. Our students must know the "whys" of the genocide of American Indians, African peoples, indigenous Australian peoples, of the holocausts of Southeast Asia, as well as the better known recent holocaust in Germany. We must present our students with the beautiful *and* the ugly. They must understand the complexities of Western and American Civilization. They must respect and be familiar with multiple points of view. So far, the students have the story of the elite well told. Yet, they must understand that of the disenfranchised, the dispossessed of this nation of sheep, or they won't be able to recognize the dangers emanating from their own ignorance. In some ways, we are close to that tragedy right now.

And sixth, the incorporation of diversity must have as its goal the transformation of our curriculum. The academic areas that can guide us and interact with the traditional disciplines are Ethnic Studies and

Women Studies, and pedagogical and scholarly methodologies that include racial, class, gender, and ethnic analyses across the curriculum. Transformation requires an affirmation and a reckoning with the connections among disciplines, of living in the boundaries, of living within the blurred boarders, and a radical shift in our cultural perception from the legacy of rugged individualism to the communality reflected in the jazz metaphor. Some of you who have read my work, know that I like to express that through the West African proverb "I am we," which is gramatically incorrect in English, but which says what we need to be thinking. Structurally, it implies the need for faculty development, team teaching, comparative study, interdisciplinary programs, and interdisciplinary departments.

What I have tried to do is provide you with some initial thinking about the context for addressing growing diverse populations in higher education, in order to encourage a transformation that allows for a supportive, meaningful environment for all our students: Black, White, Yellow, Red, immigrants, gay, lesbian, older, younger, the physically disabled, whomever. Somehow, we have got to find a way for our institutions to create the space and time for our souls to grow deep like the river — for Leslie Silko, Langston Hughes, Amy Tan, Toni Morrison, Sandra Cisneros, Frank Chin, as well as Nathaniel Hawthorne and Margaret Atwood to belong to all of us, because we can own their stories. Then we will not have courses on The Family, but rather on *Families*. We will not have theories of deviance based on racist norms. And we will naturally encourage women chemistry students from all backgrounds as well as we unthinkingly encourage White male chemistry students.

Our souls will grow deep together.

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Knowledge Into Wisdom: Incorporating Values and Beliefs to Construct a Wise University

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Philosopher Nicholas Maxwell argues that universities today are founded on a philosophy of knowledge that is too narrowly focused on solving the technical problems of specialized academic disciplines. Maxwell believes that the foundation for the university should be a new type of inquiry that would have as its aim the improvement of not only knowledge but personal and global wisdom—a type of inquiry that would help us address the larger, complex problems that threaten our society. The authors agree with Maxwell but submit that the university has already begun a transformation to the philosophy of wisdom. As evidence of this organizational transition, current debates within the academy which relate to the components of wisdom are analyzed. A model for the development of wisdom is presented and its stages compared to the historical development of the university. The authors argue that universities should both exemplify and foster wisdom. Instructional implications of the philosophy of wisdom are explored.

Since early Greek culture and before, wisdom has been prized. Plato's dialogues indicate a recognition that the concept of wisdom is multifaceted, referring to the "pursuit of truth" through contemplation (sophia), to "practical wisdom" (phronesis), and to a form of "scientific" or natural knowledge (episteme) (Robinson, 1990). Wisdom was based on the integration and harmony of these ideals. Our conception of wisdom is deeply embedded in our beliefs about how we come to know.

As we enter a new century, we are seeing a revival of interest in the study of wisdom and the more balanced world view it represents. This resurgence is due in part to the search for a vision that will restore harmony and inspire us to meet the challenges of our time. Society is engaged in unprecedented upheaval and change. The values of individualism and competitiveness upon which America was founded appear not only to be inadequate but in many ways antithetical to the teamwork and interdependence called for in a new global age.

The workforce of tomorrow will require the ability to construct meanings from knowledge (abstraction), the ability to recognize connections and interrelationships (systems thinking), the ability to reach beyond what is known (experimentation), and the ability to successfully work with others to achieve mutual goals (collaboration) (Reich, 1991). These are not skills that can be acquired through spectator methods of education nor can they be apprehended through an education focused on the accumulation of facts alone. Many voices, not only from outside but from within our universities, are calling for a change in our educational institutions (Atkinson, 1992; Bok, 1990; Rhodes, 1993.) There is a growing recognition that universities, like institutions of government and industry, are undergoing a fundamental transformation. To be successful, this transformation must reach to the very heart of the university and unveil the values and beliefs which form its foundation (Scott & Awbrey, 1993).

Throughout history, society has expected universities to contribute to the development of effective citizens and to the solution of societal problems. By the late Middle Ages, there were "pressures to harness education to professional, ecclesiastical, and governmental needs" (Klein, 1990). This pressure led to the rise of disciplines. It is interesting to note that it was external pressure which first led to the profound specialization we experience today. Ironically, it is this very specialization that has created a gulf between the university and its ability to respond to the problems and issues society currently faces. Philosopher Nicholas Maxwell notes that universities today are founded on a philosophy of knowledge—they are focused too narrowly on the limited, technical problems of specialized academic disciplines. He states that we need "a new kind of inquiry [that] would have as its basic aim to improve, not just knowledge, but rather personal and global wisdom" (Maxwell, 1992, p.205).

The "official basic creed" of the academic enterprise is that "rational inquiry ought to help enhance the quality of human life by, first, improving knowledge." However, Maxwell reminds us that "intellectual priority needs to be given to the dual tasks of articulating our problems of living, and proposing and criticizing possible solutions . . . Problems of knowledge and understanding need to be tackled as rationally subordinate to intellectually more fundamental problems of living" (Maxwell, 1984, p.3). Essentially, Maxwell is saying that universities must move from a limiting philosophy of knowledge to a philosophy of wisdom. We believe that this broader vision must be found if we are to inhabit a world in which people are prepared and willing to deliberate about issues that affect their lives and to take responsibility for decisions that will maintain and enhance democracy.

In considering how a change to the philosophy of wisdom might impact our universities, it is first necessary to say what one means by wisdom. Many definitions from ancient to modern times have been offered. We cannot do justice here to this historical perspective. However, most concepts of wisdom view it as the end point of a process that encompasses the idea of making sound judgments in the face of uncertainty. It is how we address the deep, unstructured questions that life presents us. "The essence of wisdom . . . lies not in what is known but rather in the manner in which that knowledge is held and in how that knowledge is put to use" (Meacham, 1990). Wisdom then requires not only a knowledge base (factual and experiential), but an awareness of the contextual nature of knowledge (awareness that one's own views and those of others are interpretations), and awareness that knowledge is a temporary settlement based on the current best evidence (recognition of uncertainty) (Kitchener & Brenner, 1990).

Karen Strohm Kitchener and P.M. King have developed a model for the development of reflective judgment. Its stages include:

1. Knowledge simply exists and, therefore, does not need justification. Knowledge is concrete.
2. Knowledge is absolutely certain, or certain but not immediately available. We can know directly or via authorities.
3. Knowledge is absolutely certain or temporarily uncertain. In the areas of temporary uncertainty, we can know only via our intuitions or biases.
4. Knowledge is idiosyncratic since situational variables dictate that we cannot know with certainty.
5. Knowledge is contextual and subjective. Since what is known is known via perceptual filters, we cannot know directly. We may know only interpretations of the material world.
6. Knowledge is personally constructed via evaluations of evidence, opinions of others, etc., across contexts; thus we may know our own and other's personal constructions of issues.
7. Knowledge is constructed via the process of reasonable inquiry into generalizable conjectures about the problem at hand, e.g., which interpretation seems most probable based on the current evidence. (Adapted from Kitchener & Brenner, 1990, p.218)

In these last stages we see the emergence of wisdom when there is awareness that knowledge

> must be constructed via critical inquiry or through the synthesis of opposing views. Such constructions often go beyond the evaluations of others' perspectives. Rather, they are generative, offering, much like [the biblical] Solomon, a new, more complete way to view the issue under consideration. (Kitchener & Brenner, 1990)

Although wisdom is often associated with old age (Clayton & Birren, 1980; Erickson, 1982), empirical evidence is not adequate to draw such a conclusion, and older people appear less likely to endorse this age relationship than the young or middle-aged (Meacham, 1990). Still, even if the final stages of wisdom emerge at an age beyond that of many college students, we believe that it is the responsibility of educational institutions to assist students to move through the stages of development toward wisdom. In addition to providing the student with a foundation, the university should also provide a model for wisdom in the environment it creates. Universities should not just foster wisdom but should exemplify it.

Too often we view institutions as monoliths of bricks and mortar on which we can have little impact. Yet, organizations are made up of people. Their policies, procedures, administrations, operations are all determined by the people who inhabit them. They are, as Bellah, et al. (1991) note, patterned ways that people live together. Universities are institutions of people—people responding to their times. Because of this, we would like to use wisdom as a metaphor for how universities have developed to reflect the people who inhabit them and how some of the current issues within the university can be viewed from this perspective. We believe that the university itself has been struggling through the stages of development toward wisdom and that debates about aspects of wisdom have been occurring on many fronts —often without their participants identifying them as such. In short, we believe the transition from a philosophy of knowledge to a philosophy of wisdom has begun, however marginally, in higher education.

Which Knowledge-Base?

One very fundamental debate within the university has been the debate over canon. As we have seen, researchers identify a factual and experiential knowledge base as an important element of wisdom although not a sufficient condition for it (Meacham, 1990; Kitchener & Brenner, 1990). There has been a long-standing debate within the academy over what should form the fundamental knowledge base of the university.

There are those like Robert Maynard Hutchins who contend that "Education implies teaching. Teaching implies knowledge. Knowledge is truth. The truth is everywhere the same. Hence education should be everywhere the same" (Oakley, 1992, p.125). This theme seems to have been taken up by many conservative critics for whom pluralism and multiculturalism have become the rocks upon which Western Civilization has foundered. It has, they believe, created a "cultural relativism" that began in the 1960s (Bloom, 1987). However, Francis Oakley's (1992) work helps us to recognize that the "roots of the women's movement are deeply engaged in nineteenth-century soil"; that programs of study of what later became called the "Third World" began in the 1950s; that the establishment of African-American studies was generated by the change in race relations that began after the Second World War; and that "the seeds of doubt about [Western civilization core-curriculum's] viability had begun to germinate even before the 1950s" (Oakley, 1992, p.131). Thus, the rise of pluralism cannot be dismissed as simply an invention of radicals during the 1960s. If we examine Kitchener and King's model of wisdom, we also find that relativism is an important stage in the development of wisdom. It moves us from an authority based model of knowledge to one that recognizes the contextual nature of our knowing.

As Benjamin Barber notes:

> There has been no single historical canon, but an evolving argument. And if the canon turns us into "Us", we in turn transform the canon into "The Canon": It creates Us as we create It. As we are heterogeneous, our story in time necessarily becomes plural, plural in that each generation rewrites it, plural in that it must confront the reality of pluralism in the makeup of the nation. The more inclusive the story, the more pluralistic its plot. (Barber, 1992, p.27)

The authors believe that to form a wise university it is important to maintain an historical perspective, a knowledge base if you will. We, like Tarnas (1991), affirm the importance of history and recognize the project of Western Civilization as "a necessary and noble part of a great dialectic" which has prepared the way for a "larger synthesis". But we contend that the university's knowledge base must expand these boundaries. It must be not only inclusive but recognized as representing differing perspectives on the same events.

Living with Uncertainty

A second debate within the university centers on the tension between theory and practice. During the early stages of university history, the search for knowledge focused on the search for fixed, antecedent invariants often attributed to the divine. Action and practical activity were eschewed as fraught with potential failure and frustration. The deep desire for certainty and freedom from risk is a natural human characteristic as "man who lives in a world of hazards is compelled to seek for security" (Dewey 1929/1988, p.3). Unfortunately, according to John Dewey, this desire led to three mistakes in ancient thought:

> the first, that certainty, security, can be found only in the fixed and unchanging; the second, that knowledge is the only road to that which is intrinsically stable and certain; the third, that practical activity is an inferior sort of thing, necessary simply because of man's animal nature and the necessity for winning subsistence from the environment. (Dewey 1929/1988, p.41)

With the rise of the scientific method, this search for invariants gave way to the search for constant relations among changes (Dewey 1929/1988). Experiment replaced belief. This new acceptance of action was a primary step toward the development of a philosophy of wisdom, and society looked optimistically to science for bright, new solutions to its ills. However, recently, this optimism has waned. Is this because the idea of active inquiry is flawed? We submit that it is not inquiry that is flawed but only our narrow conception of it. The academy, through its specialization and reward structure, has limited inquiry to narrow forms of technical rationality (Schön, 1994). As Derek Bok points out, the problems that attract outstanding scholars are those susceptible to verifiable experiments while the large, neglected societal problems appear value-laden and seemingly intractable (Bok, 1990, p.45). Lee Shulman (1994) comments that those parts of the university that most directly address the agenda for the improvement of life and living—schools of social work, nursing, education—are the most fragile, marginal, gendered, and vulnerable to closing or merger in times of budget crisis. Further, he notes that the investigators who are most successful in these schools are often those who embrace research paradigms that "flee the furthest" from the social amelioration and social change for which the schools were created. He calls this the process of "deconstruction to the closest relevant discipline"—a process in which research in these professional schools is couched in the jargon of disciplines that are seen as more prestigious and scientific.

Donald Schön (1994) and others have suggested that new methods of inquiry must be identified to address the types of unstructured, real-life problems that are the center of Nicholas Maxwell's argument. Indeed, rather than being anti-action, these methods must be steeped in practice. According to Schön, most "civilizing problems" are of the type in which it is impossible to discriminate among hypotheses about what is going on. In order to deal with such problems, Schön suggests that we must become "reflective designers" under conditions of uncertainty. Because we are unable to set out variables, we must reflect on the situation's "pattern causality." Pattern causality is the combination of design causality, in which things happen because you intend them to and act to bring about results, and efficient causality, in which your actions produce unintended consequences. Under conditions of pattern causality, we must look for causes by tracing back events in time and space and then doing on the spot checks and experiments to confirm our hunches. This, says Schön, is the difference between social inquiry and social science. New kinds of inquiry, measurement, and documentation similar to those Schön describes elsewhere have been referred to as action science (Argyris, Putnam, and Smith 1985) and design experiments (Shulman, 1994).

If the university is to embrace the philosophy of wisdom, it must give place to these broader interpretations of inquiry. Indeed, this process has already begun. Throughout the academy—in mathematics, economics, anthropology, education, natural sciences—an unrest with the adequacy of current methods for studying complex systems is emerging. As Shulman notes, this movement is still marginal, and those within it remain in a vulnerable, fragile condition within the university. Yet, an awareness of the importance of this transition is beginning to appear across the academy. Proponents do not advocate the replacement of standard quantitative methods but an expansion of options for handling systems not well described within a quantitative framework.

The Contextual Nature of Knowing

Through the centuries in Western civilization a dualistic view of human cognition has arisen. It has separated meaning apprehended through logical, deductive modes from those acquired through intuitive and aesthetic approaches (Labouvie-Vief, 1990). The rise of the scientific method produced the age of modernism characterized by the positivist, empiricist, rational-logical model of modern science and inspired by individuals such as Russell, Carnap, Wittgenstein, and Husserl (Neville, 1992, pp. 5-11). The scientific method was developed with good reason, and it moved our inquiries beyond mere appeals to authority. However, as we have seen, the strict, narrow interpretation of empiricism by the positivists eventually led to disillusionment (Rousneau, 1992, p.10).

This disillusion with modernism's ability to lead us to a "good world" gave rise to the post-modern movement, inspired by Nietzsche and Heidegger. Post-modernism is a complex term covering many different views. However, post-modernism "rejects epistemological claims, refutes methodological conventions, [and] resists knowledge claims" (Rousneau, 1992, p.3). Post-modernism is a radical response to modernism's narrow viewpoint. It attempts to shake our complacency while creating an awareness of the role of interpretation in cognition. We noted earlier that a third element of wisdom as described by Kitchener & Brenner (1990) is the recognition that our knowledge depends upon the interpretations we and others make. Perhaps no issue has obtained such prominent deliberation in this post-modern era as the debate over interpretation.

But must we conclude that empiricism with its great achievements is incompatible with interpretation, or can we broaden our view of inquiry to include both logical and intuitive forms of knowing? We believe this is not only possible but has long been a part of the scientific method although not recognized by the narrow positivist view of science that the post-modernists criticize. For example, in physics, Chandrasekhar (1987, p. 65) cites renowned scientist Hermann Weyl as saying, "My work always tried to unite the true with the beautiful; but when I had to choose one or the other, I usually chose the beautiful." Weyl made this statement in reference to his gauge theory of gravitation because he was convinced that this theory was not true as a theory of gravitation, but it was too beautiful for him to abandon. Chandrasekhar (1987, p. 66) notes that "much later, it did turn out that Weyl's instinct was right after all, when the formalism of gauge invariance was incorporated into quantum electrodynamics." Erwin Schrödinger is also reputed to have said that it is more important to have beauty in your equations than to have them fit experiments. Nobel prize-winning geneticist Barbara McClintock indicates that what enabled her to reach deeper and further into the mysteries of genetics than her colleagues was an "openness to let it come to you", the ability to "hear what the material has to say to you," and "a feeling for the organism" (Keller, 1983, p.197). We mention these examples from intellectual giants of the twentieth century because they illustrate clearly that great scientists have always included factors other than empiricism in arriving at the truth. The question becomes not if, but how widely, we are to draw the circle of inclusion of non-empirical factors in the development and the testing of scientific theories. As we have seen, Nicholas Maxwell proposes that the envelope be pushed much further. By so doing, he believes we will accelerate our progress to truth and to a better and wiser world.

Maxwell can find support for this thesis in the emerging field of cognitive science. Nersessian and others who study how scientists think have developed a process of cognitive-historical analysis. The main premise of this practice is that "the problem-solving strategies scientists have invented and the representational practices they have developed over the course of the history of science are very sophisticated and refined outgrowths of ordinary reasoning and representational processes" (Nersessian, 1992, p.5). Nersessian, through the study of the thought patterns of scientists such as James Clerk Maxwell and Michael Faraday, has shown that throughout history there is recurrent use of analogical reasoning, imagistic reasoning, thought experiment, and limiting case analysis, elements that clearly go beyond the positivist view of empiricism. She states that "the problem becomes that of how it is that scientists, working individually or collectively, combine the cognitive abilities they have in virtue of their biology with the conceptual resources they acquire from the various facets of their lives in a wider community" (Nersessian, 1992, p.38).

But an examination of the history of philosophy shows us that there have been ways around the narrow definition of empiricism developed by the modernists all along:

> Of particular importance is the development within the Peircean lineage of a concern for value in experience. Moving down from Peirce are two tightly interwoven lines of descent. The first is the pragmatic tradition of James, Dewey, Mead, and others. The second is the adoptive lineage of Whitehead's process philosophy...Like Peirce just before him, Whitehead went around modernism. (Neville 1992, p.18)

The Development of a Wise Institution

From this limited discussion of issues being debated within the academy, we begin to see how members of our universities, over time, have moved our institutions through stages analogous to those of Kitchener and King's model of wisdom. We recognize the first three stages of the model as representing a belief in the certainty of knowledge based in authority. This can be seen as the foundation of early universities and monastic guilds during an age of divine wisdom. Stage four of the model represents the period during which the certainty of this divine plan came into question after the Copernican revolution. Stage five and the beginning of stage six represent our current post-modern debate in which logical, deductive vs. aesthetic and narrative forms of knowing are in tension. Stages five and six can also be seen as representing the current fragmentation of our multiversities in which knowledge is viewed from the perspective of each discipline, and judgment about which perspective is best is often based on ethnocentric, disciplinary criteria. To construct a university based on the philosophy of wisdom will require us to move to stage seven of Kitchener and King's model. Stage seven represents a resolution of opposing views not through selection but through synthesis. It is generative in that new, more complete perspectives emerge from a synthesis of the old. This stage calls for new forms of connection and inclusion not only across disciplinary boundaries within the university but across the boundaries that separate the university from society. We have argued that this transformation is already in progress and will be vital to creating an institution that is relevant and effective in the twenty-first century.

What This Implies for Teaching and Learning

Even if we succeed in constructing a university environment that exemplifies the philosophy of wisdom, this model will be insufficient to nurture wisdom in our students unless it extends to their instruction. William Perry's (1968) studies identified stages of growth in a college student's world view. According to Perry, the student first takes a dualistic "we-right-good vs. other-wrong-bad" view. Second, the student accounts for diversity of opinion and uncertainty by seeing them as a product of a poorly qualified authority who hasn't found the answer. Next, he/she takes a relativistic point of view in which everyone is entitled to his/her own opinions. In later stages the student identifies the contextual nature of knowing and sees the need to orient him/herself through personal commitment, accepting the responsibility that such commitment entails. If we believe that the achievement of the later stages of development represented by Perry and the Kitchener and King model are the ultimate goal of education based on a philosophy of wisdom, this has several implications for the educational enterprise.

The ability to recognize that our knowledge is only the temporary settlement of questions based on the best current evidence is perhaps one of the most important lessons from wisdom that can inform our instruction. By allowing teachers to act as catalysts of learning rather than authority figures, we can help students to understand and appreciate the uncertain character of our knowledge. The use of active inquiry and critical thinking will allow them to move through the stages of puzzlement, action, and reflection that John Dewey, long ago, recognized as crucial elements of learning. Engagement of students in active learning is essential if we wish them to develop the habits of reflective judgment. Spectator methods of instruction in which students sit passively listening to authoritarian role models will do little to assist this process. Fortunately, advancements in learning technology have opened new avenues for learning which, if used effectively, can assist in providing students with environments that actively involve them as participants in their learning.

But Nicholas Maxwell has challenged us to take the idea of uncertainty one step further. We have seen how the scientific method has replaced the method of authority and the certainty of fixed invariant knowledge. Yet, within the academy we have also seen that our explorations are most often constrained to those areas in which outcomes are, if not certain, at least quite predictable. Maxwell has challenged us to once again tolerate ambiguity and uncertainty by addressing the complex, unstructured questions that face and threaten our society—to reach beyond the surety of our certain methods and to explore new ways of knowing and assessing. If we are to take this call seriously and to create an institution that embraces a philosophy of wisdom, we must act to develop new methodologies for inquiry and encourage our students to join in the exploration of these great questions.

An awareness that the knowledge we hold is an interpretation of our perceptions was also identified in our earlier discussion as a key element of wisdom. Often knowledge is presented to students with little discussion of the assumptions that underlie it. An increase in deliberation among students and within and between instructors and departments is needed to reveal the contextual nature of knowing. The abilities to identify our underlying assumptions and to recognize that our ideas are not context-free are major components of critical thinking. "When we are aware of how hidden and uncritically assimilated assumptions are important to shaping our habitual perceptions, understandings, and interpretations of the world, and to influencing the behaviors that result from these interpretations, we become aware of how context influences thought and actions" (Brookfield, 1987, p.8). To be effective in fostering critical thinkers who are contextually aware, it is important that instructors question the assumptions that underlie the knowledge, values, and methods used in their instruction and that they invite students to question their own assumptions as well as those of the instructor. This is a task that requires courage and openness.

Unexamined assumptions can lead to insular views. We noted earlier that our universities have become profoundly specialized and departmentalized. This departmentalization has led to boundaries that have lost their permeability between disciplines. Communications across these boundaries have become limited. Varying interpretations have made it difficult, and in some cases almost impossible, to form the types of collaboration necessary to explore questions that demand creativity and require contributions from a wide and diverse team. Schön (1994) noted that to increase cooperative inquiry we must model it in what we say and do. Beyond modeling collaboration, we must also give students practice in working in collaborative teams. Yet, much of our educational system is still founded on ideas of competitiveness.

Implications can also be drawn for how we teach the knowledge base that underlies wisdom. Studies of problem-solving by medical students during clinical diagnosis reveal that the way in which information is learned and stored can have a profound effect on how it will later be used. Traditional methods of teaching basic science courses interfere with the ability to access and use that information during problem-solving and diagnosis. The problem-solving and decision-making of medical students has been studied intensely. Less attention has been paid to the real world problem-solving of students in other fields. Still, it seems likely that the difficulties experienced by medical students in accessing and using their knowledge is not an exception.

If, as Secretary of Labor Robert Reich suggests, problem-solving is a primary skill that will be necessary for success in tomorrow's work force and, as Nicholas Maxwell and others suggest, problem-solving is essential for the well-being of individuals and the world they inhabit, then attention needs to be paid not only to what information we believe students must acquire as a knowledge base but to making sure that this knowledge is continually linked to the types of problem-solving that it is intended to undergird. One way of insuring such transfer is to involve students in consistent realistic practice and problem-solving throughout their educational experience. A system of education built on the philosophy of wisdom would require a reexamination of the place of practice and application in student education.

Although many changes are underway in postsecondary education, to fully embrace and exemplify a philosophy of wisdom will require the creativity and dedication of the entire university community. It is a significant challenge, but one we believe it will be essential to meet if higher education is to move successfully into the next century.

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Challenging Values: Conflict, Contradiction, and Pedagogy

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The current crises of economics, demographics, retention, and disgruntled faculty, along with the neglect of the national mission to educate our citizenry for a democratic society, offer an opportunity on the cusp of the millennium to reflect about our values and the values of traditional American education. The literature of travel and cultural studies provides new lenses to help us and our institutions expose deeply held beliefs, assumptions, and the actions that have been taken in their names. Uncovering these beliefs can enable us as educators to reconstruct a common mission through developing a dynamic pedagogy for today's students, bolstered by the energies and informed by the voices, experiences, and values of all our citizens.

Few would dispute that the academy is a place rife with conflict and contradiction. Conflict is greatly valued in higher education. Despite the current recognition of the need to recommit to a common mission in these difficult economic times (when enrollment is falling, demographics are rapidly changing, and student retention as well as maintaining academic excellence is difficult), the tensions created by strongly voiced opposition are frequently cited as the food on which higher education thrives. Gerald Graff's call to "Teach the Conflicts" (1990) reinforces this approach to education.

Contradiction, on the other hand, rather than conflict *per se*, seems to be an issue to which our institutions and we ourselves need to devote more attention, analysis, and active energy. I use contradiction here to mean the professing of some belief or opinion followed by policy or actions which argue against rather than support the ideas expressed. Cases of fundamental contradiction within the academy abound. We are very familiar with the national resurgence of attention to undergraduate education and to the equally or better publicized resistance—even opposition—to increased teaching by faculty in many institutions across the country. Even closer to home, each of us knows colleagues who deplore teaching and others who talk about their inadequacies as teachers but seek neither to improve their skills nor to institute or support programs which might preclude similar self-confessions from the future professoriate. As Henry Louis Gates, Jr. (1990) puts it, "the schools are a site where real contradictions and ambivalences are played out" (p. 35).

For developers and faculty, even those committed to excellence in teaching, it is difficult to clarify and pursue values on such a tortured terrain. Instructional developers, whose primary mission within their institutions is to affect teaching practices for the good of their schools while serving the needs of the individual faculty and students, must contend with a plethora of contradictions, not the least of which is promoting change within a fundamentally conservative body. Long prized rights of academic freedom and independence rationalize and protect a closed-door policy in the classroom. Perks and rewards for successful grant writing, research, and publication are said to be diminished or undermined by time spent on instructional issues. In essence, power, in the form of reputation and financial gain, blatantly reinforces a zero summing or competition for limited resources which at base contradicts the American democratic mission of an educated citizenry. Kenneth Eble (1990), after many years of observation, affirmed this negative turn away from education to power: "I am interested in the larger world where the most successful large democratic state the world has known seems to be letting the desire for power cause the neglect of the education of the majority of citizens—on whom the health of that democracy depends....it is the soul of the university rather than of the students that gives me most concern" (p. 19).

In these troubled times, as we and our institutions are forced to look within to evaluate our strengths, name our weaknesses, and reassess our core values, I would contend that the current crisis itself may occasion an opportunity that otherwise would have passed unnoticed. What I am arguing is that in easier, superficially happier times of prosperity and growth, we rarely stop to evaluate who we are, what we are doing, and whether or not what we do is consonant with our deeper beliefs and values. It is only in times of adversity, of economic, physical, or mental suffering, that we stop to ask these questions. This posture of self-reflexivity, from both institutions and individuals, is a welcome and necessary response, enabling us to separate the debilitating contradictions from the regenerating conflicts. There is arguably nothing more central or timely to American higher education on the cusp of the new millenium than the reassessment of its essential values and goals.

Cultural Challenges

Whether applied to a national level or to local and personal levels, Mary Louise Pratt's cultural writings illustrate the research and study already being done to help us fully comprehend the background for the values which constitute American education as we know it today. In her book, *Imperial Eyes: Travel Writing and Transculturation*, Pratt (1992) analyzes the travel writing of seventeenth- and eighteenth-century European expansion into other worlds. Pratt explains that, unlike the sea-crossings of the fifteenth and sixteenth centuries, this was a new movement, part of the age of new science and the Enlightenment. It was intended to be a straightforward exploration of interiors, part of the "classificatory schemas that coalesced in the mid-eighteenth century into the discipline of 'natural' history" (p. 28). The project was envisioned as a benign effort for discovery and knowledge. Yet, what was intended as a nonexploitative venture to improve knowledge through locating and analyzing every species on the planet, became a reweaving of "the planet's life forms...out of the tangled thread of their life surroundings...into European-based patterns of global unity and order. The (lettered, male, European) eye that held the system could familiarize ('naturalize') new sites/sights immediately upon contact, by incorporating them into the language of the system. The differences of distance factored themselves out of the picture....Natural history extracted specimens not only from their organic or ecological relations with each other, but also from their places in other peoples' economies, histories, social, and symbolic systems" (p. 31).

As collected writings from the period show, seemingly naive investigations evolved from and conformed to a particular way of systematizing and valorizing physical, and even spiritual, reality. The advancement of knowledge and education, which these classificatory efforts were avowed to promote in the eighteenth century, were not only educational but, as becomes clear in the passage quoted above, involved social, political, and personal matters as well.

This attempt at objective analysis through exploration, description, and labeling was part of a broader world view, encompassing not only natural history, but all of human knowledge. Even before these projects to classify natural life, people "like Francis Bacon really did try to organize all of knowledge into a single capacious but coherent structure [and] ...there was a race of men who could claim all of knowledge as their purview." This "creed of universal knowledge" has defined the values of American higher education until today (Gates, 1990, p. 35). James Jarrett (1991), in *The Teaching of Values: Caring and Appreciation*, refers to the contemporary legacy: the emphasis placed on the objective in traditional American education. Importance lies with the cognitive skills: to know that, rather than to know how. Problem solving emphasizes facts and theories, fosters binary opposities, and reveres a particular kind of logic over context and connection. Like the naturalists' specimens, academics are perennially accused of removing themselves and their research to the ivory tower, a retreat from the real world and, most important today, away from their undergraduate students. Not surprisingly, today as then, shaped by traditional Western European values, many well-intentioned educators in the United States go about their work without a conscious awareness of the assumptions and biases which, similar to those of the scientists of the new age, may be responsible for outcomes neither intended nor desired.

Education — the means to knowledge, which translates into power and authority in the United States — has created a New World elite of specific descendents of the Old World aristocracy. Henry Giroux (1990) points to the historical role of the liberal arts in preparing those destined to rule. In higher education it is rather like passing on an estate without the scepter. The few in the know, those holding the keys, chart the paths, map the strategies, assemble the data, choose the great books, and seize the controlling metaphors. Attesting to the persistence today of these images of dominance, Professor Theodore J. Lowi of Cornell University was recently quoted in the *Chronicle of Higher Education* avowing: "I would like to see the Fulbright Program become the moral equivalent of empire." These enduring images perpetuate a colonial model in higher education.

None of us, regardless of the value system into which we were born, is either free or necessarily cognizant of the conceptual framework which structures our thoughts and our language. Both developers and faculty trained in the Western tradition may, for example, think themselves as impartial, as did the scientists and explorers in the seventeenth and eighteenth centuries. However, like these writers who described the peoples they encountered alternately with admiration and scorn (Pratt, 1992, p. 39), colleagues describe students, on the one hand, as newfound treasures, curious blank slates, empty vessels, embodied versions of uncharted territory, and, on the other hand, as the equivalent of empty landscapes, and lazy or unresponsive natives, waiting to be developed and enlightened. These *deficient kids* are said to be worse than their predecessors, uncritical thinkers, and, to be sure, in need of improvement. Arguments about offering questionably remedial courses in math, languages, and writing are rife, even in institutions with the most stringent entry requirements. How can anyone really be surprised when underrepresented students say "they feel like visitors, like guests, like foreign or colonized citizens in relation to a traditional canon that fails to represent their cultural identities" (Gates, 1990, p. 35).

In his address, *The Cultural Sciences, the University, and Citizenship,* Hayden White (1993) held that the traditional values of American higher education cannot but perpetuate the status quo. What's more, "...the academy today is an institution of legitimation — establishing what counts as knowledge, what counts as culture" (Gates, 1990, p. 36). It follows that if education provides the normative language (recalling Pratt's allusion to the language of the system) and conventions of a society, it works, consciously and unconsciously, to reproduce itself, condemning those outside and uninitiated to disfranchisement or encouraging them to seek empowerment by working against the system. Giroux (1990) writes, "The university is a place that produces a particular selection and ordering of narratives and subjectivities. It is a place that is deeply political and unarguably normative"(p. 114). Few of us would deny the essential and deeply political nature of education. Like the well-meaning missionaries bent on saving those in distant places, education is not benign or free from the self-serving needs of the system of its dominant group, the group whose historical moments and beliefs it commemorates.

Beyond Conceptual Boundaries

Today, as in the eighteenth century, many individuals raised in the Western tradition desire to improve the human condition through discovery and education. It behooves us all as Americans to first apprehend the philosophy and system of values which assumes others in need, desirous, and awaiting the change we offer. We must also consider when, to whom, and what kind of change is an improvement. By engaging in this analysis of philosophical, religious, historical, and social origins, we can confront the basis of the legitimizing rationales repeatedly employed on the side of Western interventions. In *Imperial Eyes* , Pratt (1992) alludes to J. M. Coetzee's analyses of the seventeenth- and eighteenth-century encounters in the Cape of Africa. Coetzee writes of the European frustrations with and vilification of native peoples as a result of the "failure to fulfill anthropological and economic expectations" (p. 45). These scientific missions, catalogings, and technologically-based experiments enact a Western paradigm of universal progress and competition which continues to control American education and exhibits a particular and partial view of life.

In order to break this cycle today, we need to bring together all of our constituencies, examine all of our beliefs and motivating values, and redefine our identity together for a mission to which we consciously choose to recommit ourselves. The time has come to reconsider the meaning of *e pluribus unum* if we are to educate our citizens for a democratic polity in the new millenium.

A Galilean Challenge Reshaped For Post-Modern, Post-Coloniai Times

The challenge for Galileo's time was to accept what could no longer be denied: the evidence that the earth circled around the sun and that man (sic), therefore, was not positioned in the center of the universe. The rupture with traditional thinking occasioned by this major shift cannot be underestimated. Yet, the challenge for our time is not a small one. It is, once again, to decenter a dominant view from the avowed center of universal knowledge and objective truth. It is to relinquish power in order to enter as equal partners in the world community where education is not a zero sum game but a genuine opportunity to learn from other world views and educational systems. The challenge to us as educators—instructional developers and faculty—is to become conscious of our own tacit values and assumptions, to examine the beliefs and precepts of the very systems in which we were trained so as not to recreate the status quo. Empirical reality, common sense, and research tell us that many traditional practices in higher education today stand counter to our growing understanding of the world we live in. It is important for us to find a way to integrate other kinds of knowledge without eradicating differences and their relational relevance.

Paolo Freire (1977), the social critic whose work has led the way for our growing awareness of the role of education in a democratic society, has shown us the importance of education in constructing both individual and social realities. In *Beyond Culture*, Edward Hall (1989) asserts the need to experience other cultural selves as valid realities in order to validate our own true cultural selves. It is only by experiencing these truths that we can discover the limitations of any one particular conceptual framework: "the hidden and unstated assumptions that control our thoughts and block the unraveling of cultural processes" essential to our lives and work (1976, p. 220). These formative realizations are the starting point for our work in all the roles we play in higher education.

A Beginning Without Conclusions

As much by the research and writing of this paper as by the living of the daily experience of contradictions in essential values in American higher education, I am convinced of the complexity of the issues and the depth of the problems confronting higher education in the United States today. Nevertheless, rather than assume the reactive or oppositional posture so common in Western thinking, I wish to offer suggestions for accepting and working with the new challenges.

In *The Business of Paradigms*, Joel Arthur Barker (1989) assures us that what has been successful in the past is no guarantee for the future. Therefore, in the spirit of idealism and risk-taking, I am suggesting that we begin the process by expanding ourselves and our own classroom practices in search of new conceptual frameworks. With the help of many others who have been thinking along similar lines, I have compiled a list of ways which help me to work on a pedagogy of inclusion and mutual risk-taking. I offer it as a step towards creating a new vision and process for adapting higher education to the twenty-first century. The specific examples are drawn from my experiences with teaching in humanities and interdisciplinary social science courses.

Towards A New Classroom Experience

1. It is important to discuss with colleagues and students how pedagogy is embedded in value systems. Self-reflective faculty might risk finding out the discrepancies between their beliefs and their actions. Encouraging teachers to examine how they teach and grade students whose values they do not like, those who do not like theirs, or those who do not like their subject or give it high priority in their daily lives can be very instructive in bringing discrepancies to light. Likewise, by demonstrating that inconsistency and self-evaluation are human attributes and are welcome in the classroom, faculty — along with their students — can learn more about themselves, each other, and the potential for personal knowledge and growth within an open learning environment. Thomas Angelo's and K. Patricia Cross' *Classroom Assessment Techniques* (1993) offers various options for assessing and beginning talk about values for classroom learning.

2. There is an urgent need to recontextualize students. Faculty must resist the *scientific* impulse to unity and order at the expense of losing essential differences and connections. Carefully designed discussions and writing assignments can elicit memories, narratives, and stories which reveal who students are in addition to what they think. In her talk "Comparative Cultural Studies," given at the University of California, Berkeley in April 1993, Mary Louise Pratt suggested asking students how far back their family histories go before a second language comes, in in order to engage them not only about what they know but who they are and what they choose to tell. Information shared helps students create a dynamic for working and learning together. A questionnaire or diagnostic writing exercise at the beginning of a course can help provide information to guide in lesson planning. In addition to giving relevant academic and personal background, students can express their expectations for a course, how the course fits with their personal goals, what they believe the role of the instructor is, what successful small-group or collaborative class exercises they have participated in, which classroom strategies they are most comfortable with, and how they understand the value of higher education. Encouraging them to share their academic and free-time interests helps faculty plan interdisciplinary and creative assignments. Providing a roster with phone numbers and using a variety of group assignments allow students to know and rely on one another as colearners and teachers. Such an empathetic and connected approach to learning owes much to a feminist theory of pedagogy which does not recoil from but encourages starting from existing knowledge and personal experience.

3. Faculty and students together need to find ways to introduce and incorporate value debate rather than turning away to apparent safety. Classes can and should discuss how different and even opposing values can coexist. Simulations, role-plays, and debates give voice to contrary beliefs about difficult topics. Discussion as to whether and how it is possible to find common ground to make decisions affecting everyone is essential in a democracy. Students can consider issues confronting higher education today, such as finding a common set of values to cover scientific research, defining American literature, or constituting a general core curriculum for undergraduate education in

the United States. Even closer to their everyday experiences, students need to talk about learning in a multicultural environment. What kinds of diversity, seen and unseen, exist in a college classroom? Do students experience a sense of a dominant value system in their own classrooms? Do students perceive themselves as insiders and/or outsiders? Pratt reminds all teachers to beware of the self-flattery of *letting in the other*, the underrepresented or the marginalized.

4. Students need to participate in the current debates on the structure and content of their disciplines. To enable them to become critical thinkers in the debates, faculty need to teach the critical methodologies on the undergraduate level, allowing students to experience as many analytical postures as possible. Edward Hall (1989) and Gregory Jay (1987) agree that it is impossible to hear others when a person is rooted solely in one subjectivity. Faculty can model and bring in responsible critique, encouraging their students publicly to form questions about the materials. Faculty and students together can consider why theory is valorized above experience or application. Through a variety of group and individual projects, students can construct their own questions and theories and learn to critically challenge the traditional approaches and answers. Ira Shor (1993, p. 26), a Freirean scholar, describes an education which does not encourage students to pose problems as an education which is *done to* students, rather than something *they do*. Jay (1987) shows us that, by engaging material from different subjectivities, students can demonstrate how meaning is constructed and not a given.

5. Faculty and students can benefit from recognizing the relationship of identity to both reading and writing. All readers assume a position before the text and, as Judith Fetterly pointed out at the National Council of Teachers of English Summer Institute, 1993, everyone has a *master* narrative: a way of seeing the world. Teachers have a critical responsibility to expose students to more than one kind of consciousness. Consequently, teachers need not only to teach different readings but also to teach different kinds of writing and have students try writing other than *arguments* and conventional papers. James Slevin (1992) asserts that disciplinary conventions are not "part of nature" (p. 27). It follows then that academic writing is not a natural

law. Gates (1990) wants "to emphasize that a true decentering of the humanities can't be just a matter of new content in old forms" (p. 40).

6. Faculty can help students to value their own ideas by beginning with writing exercises before reading. Making connections through writing shows students that they needn't always look to the authorities. They can produce, not only consume, meaning. (Jay, 1987, p.798). Partner journals enable students to talk to each other on different topics without teacher involvement. Electronic mail enables reactions and stories to be written which previously would have gone untold. Jon Katz (1994, p. 1) observed in *The New York Times* that "All over the world, the gatekeepers are disintegrating as the few who always decided what stories the rest of us would hear are yielding to the millions telling their stories directly to one another." Teachers can help students reveal and value their own stories and ideas.

7. Teaching can include some joint planning of curricula, syllabi and course guidelines with students. Rather than teaching top down, teachers can encourage independence and respons-ability (Pryse, 1993) by giving students part ownership of the course. Teachers needn't be afraid to read something for the first time with their students. Together they can decide how to proceed with assignments and evaluation.

8. Faculty alone can demystify insider knowledge by teaching students the essential conventions of their discipline (Bizzell, 1982, p. 203). By sharing the information, the normative language, and rules with students, teachers enable them to cooperate in and shape their own education. Students need to initiate rather than be passive initiates in their academic disciplines (Slevin, 1992, p.27).

9. Teachers need to be willing to take the responsibility for offering opinions. Taking a position is not presuming expertise. Presenting the reasoning for a judgment models effective discussion for students and leads to effective writing. Even more, effective teaching is also affective teaching (Marjorie Pryse, NCTE Summer Institute, 1993). Gregory Jay (1993) contends that "Teachers can take up a position of authority in order to displace it."

10. Faculty need to intertwine pedagogy with course content. Giroux (1990) cautions teachers not to treat pedagogy as what is left over (p.122). For example, in a literature course, works from diverse

traditions can juxtapose one another to show the connectedness of the human experience or to show different treatments and values with similar themes. Suggestions for a course in drama might be: William Shakespeare's *The Tempest* and Aimé Césaire's *A Tempest*, or Arthur Miller's *Death of A Salesman* and August Wilson's *Fences*. Literature can be paired with illustrative partners from other disciplines: Mark Twain's *Tom Sawyer* with Howard Zinn's *A People's History of the United States*. Including previously *hidden* literature can problematize notions of a canon and great books, or the definition of American literature. Team-teaching with someone from another discipline further shows the codependence of disciplines and models cooperative work. By cooperating with students in planning, pedagogy can be determined according to students' interests, other courses they are taking, and their expressed goals within the course. Returning to the course on drama, students might choose to apply a sociological or political theory being studied in another course to their understanding of a play; they might create a scene to add to a play, giving voice to unvoiced characters or showing what is only suggested; or, they might build a stage design or produce a video to illustrate their interpretations of a particular work.

Leaping into the Future

A new classroom experience involves taking a leap of faith into an unknown. Unlike traditional lecture learning where faculty prepared the essential information necessary to master an area of study, this more plastic and inclusive pedagogy builds from the prior and current learning and thinking of both teachers and students. It entrusts students, with teacher guidance, to undertake a process to identify, analyze, and critically evaluate the crucial issues surrounding each problem. In approaching solutions, this process emphasizes knowing *how* rather than knowing *that*. It validates students' ability to work together as learners and peer teachers, offering each other a multiplicity of experiences and visions. Above all, this new classroom experience provides the opportunity for students to trust that they can acquire skills necessary to accomplish their own educational goals. In discussing learner attitudes, values, and self-awareness, Angelo and Cross

(1993, p. 255) refer to the 1984 Study Group on Conditions of Excellence in American Higher Education. The report verifies that students stay in school longer and are happier when they are involved with their own learning. Sharing the responsibility helps faculty to be better teachers and enables students to be more engaged in what they are working towards.

Only through an active, participatory education can students be taught to use freedom responsibly. Freedom in education must mean a freedom to, rather than a freedom from. Jay (1993), fully aware of his role in preparing students for living in a democracy, encourages students to take up their own author-ity in the classroom in order to learn to acknowledge and debate conflicting values and meanings. Rather than the ivory tower or the pastoral retreat, the classroom of today is a microcosm of the diversity and living pains of society as a whole. By working together—through open dialogue—teachers and students need to make the meaning necessary to create a common ground to live in a democratic society. An open and self-reflective pedagogy, suggested by the points outlined above, offers faculty the opportunity to disprove Eble's (1990) judgment that "We are at a place where higher education is but distantly connected with shaping a citizenry, where a general upward mobility is replaced by a narrower grasping for status and wealth, and where undergraduate education has become largely irrelevant because, in itself, it gives little promise of either" (p. 12).

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Do You See What I See?

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This paper explores the role of visual perception as a value-laden, learned behavior. Through example, including visual conventions, it describes the relationships between perception, culture, and experience as well as the impact visual imagery has in the academic community. Methods for developing critical visual inquiry (visual literacy) are included.

Rarely is visual perception, or what might better be called visual literacy, considered an issue of college curriculum or faculty development. Emphasis is placed upon course content and relevance, teaching and learning method, and the clarity of ideas as expressed in the spoken and the written word, despite the omnipresent use of "visuals." Occasionally there are discussions of values as conveyed through visual imagery but without concern for the "why" of perception. The assumption is that, barring a mechanical problem such as myopia or colorblindness, all individuals see in a similar fashion. But is this really the case? In our culturally diverse society, do you see what I see?

The Importance of Visual Perception

It is said that 85% of our knowledge comes through our eyes. Such statements as "I see what you mean" and "seeing is believing" demonstrate the important and accepted correlation between sight and comprehension. How often do you say "oh, just show me," a phrase as grounded in practical reality as "a picture is worth a thousand words." When trying to clarify an idea, how often do you grope for a suitable visual metaphor? Do you expect students and colleagues alike to use relevant visual imagery to enhance description? Are illustrations part of lectures and seminars? How often does an image accompany charts and graphs in the pile of overhead transparencies? Are posters, illustrated catalogs, and art works visible in your institution? There is much discussion today about the values imparted by the visual images of television, film, and print. We decry the malevolence of swastikas drawn upon walls, the manipulatory image of "Joe Camel," the negative stereotypes of women, and the omnipresence of sexual imagery. We know that what is seen has impact far beyond some paint on the wall, lines on paper, or staged representations. And yet despite this acknowledgment, there still is little concern for the entire process of visual perception and the origins of the imagery we so easily use. There is a strong assumption that sight is a purely mechanical activity needing no instruction, that given the right physical equipment, we will all see in the same way. And yet, if we really thought this the case, why were so few adults initially concerned about the Camel cigarette advertising? Why do some people see a sexual motif and others a cool role model? Why'the concern that the violent images seen on television and in film are the problem, not so much the spoken and written word?

Surely more than mechanics is at work here. It is truly ironic that learning to speak, learning to read, and learning to listen are all important elements of a sound education, whereas learning to see is omitted. We struggle to teach critical thinking and critical reading but not critical seeing. We test for only the gross mechanical aspects of vision, perhaps because they are relatively easy to understand and repair: given the proper lenses or surgery, we assume that all should be able to see. Even color blindness, a physical impairment that can cause social and academic problems, is not always part of standard visual screening. It can and does happen that students enroll in college courses such as art history and chemistry completely unaware that they have a visual disability in the recognition of color.

Beyond such physical problems, all of us, in many everyday situations, know that people do not see in the same way or even see the same thing despite possessing the same visual acuity. All too common are differences in description of vehicles involved in accidents, physical characteristics of burglars, and landmarks along a well-traveled route. Sometimes such divergence is simply a matter of inattention, but often it is the result of different ways of seeing. Ample evidence indicates that how we process the visual information presented to our eyes is more than mere mechanics; it is a subjective effort based upon experience, culture, and motivation.

The Process of Visual Perception

Like all learning, visual perception is experiential. We only understand images through repetition and comparison, developing a visual vocabulary that serves as a constant template in our brains. Once we store a visual image, it can be used as a standard to which we compare any new image. For example, once we have seen and understood the image of a dog, we can draw some conclusions about other four-legged animals, as well as other dogs. Through experience we also establish a scale of visual relationships which enable us to move about with some degree of safety. It is easy to understand such obvious situations as the child who, having never seen a staircase, is unable without instruction to climb it, or the adult from a tropical climate who simply cannot see the ice supporting a car on a frozen Minnesota lake. More difficult to recognize is the cultural language of body movement, spatial relationships, symbols, colors, and shapes. Anger, frustration, and even violence occur because of blindness to these languages. Because images have immediate impact, it is easy to understand the reason for territorial graffiti in inner cities, the handshake of diplomacy, and the finger of insult with which our society is familiar.

Where, when, and how we acquire our visual vocabulary also affects our perception. If learned when very young, an image usually is taken for granted and considered to be the only way something should look. Thus, the first dog a child knows and loves may always be thought of as the one and only ideal dog. If the first dog encountered bites the child , the child may not only fear all similar dogs but actually see them as "all teeth." And a dog seen as quite small by an adult will be seen as large by a small child. Jerome Bruner and Cecile Goodman (Chance, 1989) demonstrated that poverty can affect how children see: given circles to identify as coins the poor children consistently overestimated the sizes. We all have experienced the distorted vision brought on by fatigue, hunger, or anger, as well as conflicts about beauty due to unfamiliarity or cultural bias. During the recent American involvement in the Gulf Crisis, the U.S. military had to be taught to both understand and to see the insult implied by exposing the sole of the foot, a gesture with which all Saudis are familiar but which is not even noticed by Americans.

Visual Perception and the Academic Community

But what about the complex visual vocabulary used throughout the academic world? Is it one of unanimity? Unfortunately, instances of disagreement throughout academe are many, ranging from the obvious, such as protests over poster designs and art works, to the less overt, such as a sense of environmental intimidation. One doesn't need to look beyond the physical surface to find an obvious example of the challenge. Every day students and faculty alike interact in an architectural environment of visual as well as practical significance. From the arrangement of the classroom to the location of student services, an image of the college community is created. The old "halls of ivy" may no longer be the norm, but visual conventions still inhabit the new halls, halls which may even discourage the learning process. For students from the visually complex but intimate environs of the inner city, the sprawling campus in a rural setting may present an image of isolation and dislocation. The columned porticoes of many collegiate buildings may be intimidating to individuals more familiar with classical revival architecture through uncomfortable experiences in courthouses. A large classroom may be seen by some students as a familiar and comfortable space and by others as evidence of the disregard for the individual. How space is organized and used is a direct reflection of social order and cultural conventions. All of the elements of architecture reflect the values of those who create it, values which may or may not enhance the educational atmosphere.

Of equal importance but less obvious are the visual images embedded in course material. In the struggle to inform, we often use illustrations, similes, and visual metaphors to reinforce an idea through an image. Governed by our own experience, we often choose one which is commonly understood. But we also may use one beyond the experience of our audience or one which causes confusion, discomfort, or embarrassment. Often our values are not only conveyed in these visual messages but given power not readily imagined. A common example is the metaphor "run with the ball." It carries the image of an athletic event, for most, of football, a masculine game. Not only does it convey the importance of sports imagery, but it also might be regarded as sexist. Images are both immediately affective and lasting, remembered more strongly than the complete original context and more quickly recalled. Sometimes an image is so interesting, confusing, or disconcerting that it proves more distracting than beneficial and can even completely control the attention, obscuring the context. An image of two men dancing arm in arm is often the only image remembered and queried by students watching a film on the history of the motion picture, obscuring the more important material about process and development of the media.

The Challenge of Visual Perception

Because of the strength of cultural and personal experience, complete visual objectivity is impossible. Whether in the analysis of beauty, the admiration of specific forms of visual representation, or the role of common images in society, our first approach is through our learned way of seeing. However, all of us can understand the diversity of cultural viewpoints and appreciate the rich complexity of the human experience. Values as revealed in all aspects of the visual world can be considered and respected, given the critical skills. Understanding visual perception and developing visual skills or, what might better be called visual literacy, can be an enlightening and rewarding process, providing connections to other ways of seeing, as well as revealing our own cultural subjectivity. What once may have seemed of little consequence may reveal itself as an exciting possibility-the significance of a gesture so often overlooked, the meaning of a painting once regarded as meaningless, and/or the rich symbolism of an arrangement of objects. We become more aware of the diversity of cultural attitudes toward such familiar visual elements as space, color, and representation. We can analyze visual conventions so common in our lives and question their accuracy or effectiveness, as well as reaffirm their validity.

Understanding Visual Literacy

Although experience provides us with one method of comprehending our visual world, art and artists have provided us with the major forms of visual representation. We all possess a visual vocabulary of extreme complexity and flexibility, but it is one framed by artistic tradition and innovation. In order to understand why we see the way we do, one can begin with an analysis of visual convention.

Convention is a form which becomes accepted as the standard representation within a culture, usually because it is so apt and immediate. Americans recognize the "truth" of the sun through the visual representation of a circle with lines radiating outward, even though the sun itself never actually appears in this form. Blue is a color convention for water because natural bodies of it so often reflect blue, not because the water itself is blue in color. Objects distancing in space are represented by diminishing size, not because objects actually shrink with distance, but appear to do so.

Originally developed through an act of creativity, conventions gain their credence through repetition. A crossed band of red ribbon is a recent convention accepted by many to signify support for the victims of AIDS. Not many years ago a yellow ribbon was only a phrase in a song, but today most Americans see it as a symbol of loyalty and reunion. Every day in every aspect of our lives we are directed by the images of visual convention: the "sporty" car, the "power suit," the linear division of space by sidewalks and streets. Human attitudes such as love, anger, fear, and depression can be represented through simple convention. One just needs to look at the comic pages to understand this phenomenon.

Patterns of social organization are reinforced by visual conventions such as the placement and decoration of offices (who has an office with a view and a polished wood desk?), the shape of classrooms, and the arrangement of furniture. So well do we learn to read these visual conventions within our own culture we respond immediately: we drive through an intersection when the light is green; we expect a celebration when we see balloons and colored streamers; and a tall pointed spire we follow to a church. No word need be spoken, and one can, in fact, have quite complicated "visual conversations."

Unfortunately, by this very ease we are misled into an assumption of visual universality. Even within a culture, conventions often change (at one time a yellow ribbon was a symbol for cowardice), just as they may be completely unrecognized or misunderstood in another culture (linear perspective is not a universal representation of space). The current debate about visual images and stereotypes of Native Americans is one important example of cultural conflict over visual perception.

Developing Visual Literacy

Our world is filled with far too many images for us to analyze and evaluate each and every one. However, there are practical ways to increase visual literacy:

1. Explore the visual world created by painters, sculptors, and architects. Really look at art and wonder about what you see. Ask others about what they see. Be critical about your response. The accompanying questionnaire can help in this process. By understanding the role and work of visual artists, we can begin to be more sensitive and constructive in our use of imagery.

2. Learn the basic language of the visual arts. Such words as composition, scale, balance, harmony, representation, and expression not only enable us to analyze a work of art, but they also reveal cultural ideas. There are many texts available which define this language.

3. Learn some art history. Even a brief historical survey of art reveals the longevity of standards of representation and the power of images created by artists. Such works as the "Creation of Adam" by Michelangelo, the "Venus de Milo" of ancient Greece, the "American Gothic" of Grant Wood, and the Viet Nam Memorial by Mai Lin have become models, admired and replicated in countless ways. Contemporary American culture reveals values of the Renaissance in Italy as created in the sweet-faced, blond women of Raphael, the powerful males of Michelangelo, and the logical arrangement of space by Alberti. Our symbol of governance, from the dome of the nation's capitol to all the variations in states throughout the country, replicates European ideas and images of an earlier century. Even the white, pointed steeple of New England churches and the desire for a pano-

ramic view so beloved on calendar illustrations reflect specific cultural attitudes that can be traced through art. By understanding the origins and traditions we can also understand the manipulative power, both positive and negative.

4. Understand visual conventions. Look at printed material and consider the content which is immediately revealed without words. Think about commonly accepted symbols such as the heart, red roses, stars, and crosses. Consider colors which have symbolic meaning.

5. Query others. Ask how they feel about an image, a color, an arrangement of a classroom. Pay attention when you travel and note differences in visual signs, color choice, and arrangement of space. Always look around and think about what you are seeing.

We need to expand our visual vocabulary to be more inclusive, to discard stereotypes or use them in a critical manner, and to make the visual aspect of instruction dynamic and relevant. Before we use an image, we should consider it critically, asking ourselves the following:

1. Why did we choose this image?
2. What is its history in our own lives?
3. Is it reflective of a specific time and culture?
4. Could it be misinterpreted?
5. Would it be understood in another culture?

The same basic questions can be posed in the creation and organization of physical space.

By truly considering visual imagery, one can work toward the positive experience necessary in an academic environment. All visual images can be useful instructional devices when one recognizes the cultural content and poses the question: Do you see what I see? Sensitivity to the diversity of interpretation is a worthwhile enterprise of lasting consequence.

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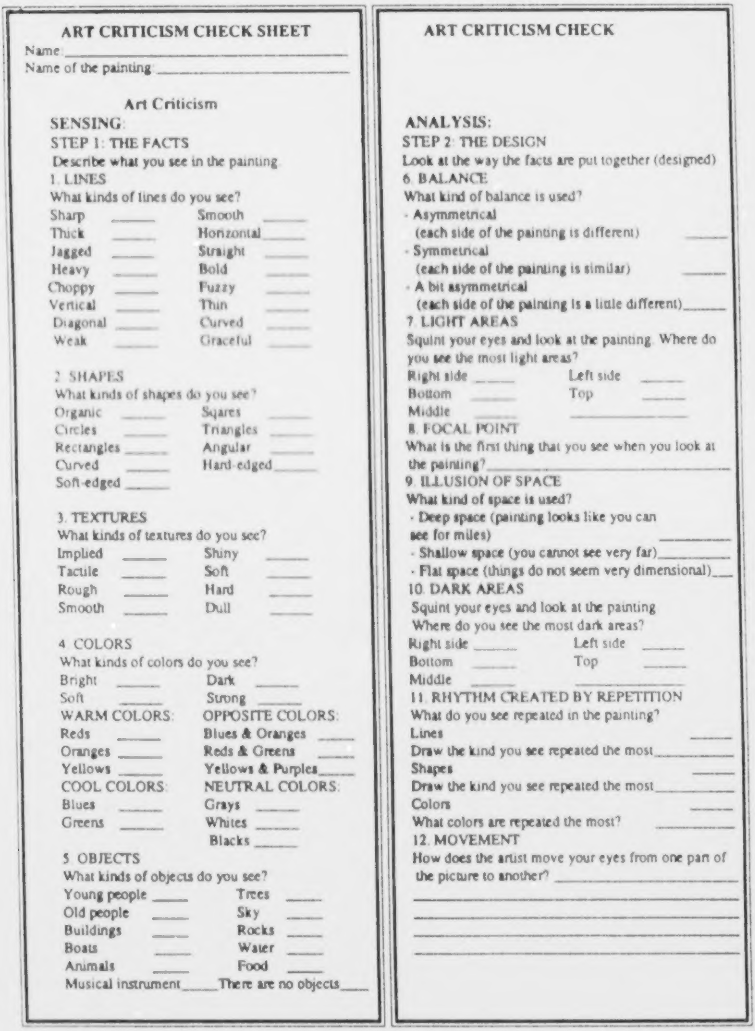
FIGURE 1: Art Criticism Check Sheet



ART CRITICISM CHECK SHEET

Name: ____________________

Name of the painting: ____________________

Art Criticism

SENSING:

STEP 1: THE FACTS

Describe what you see in the painting.

1. LINES

What kinds of lines do you see?

Sharp ____
Thick ____
Jagged ____
Heavy ____
Choppy ____
Vertical ____
Diagonal ____
Weak ____
Smooth ____
Horizontal ____
Straight ____
Bold ____
Fuzzy ____
Thin ____
Curved ____
Graceful ____

2. SHAPES

What kinds of shapes do you see?

Organic ____
Circles ____
Rectangles ____
Curved ____
Soft-edged ____
Sqares ____
Triangles ____
Angular ____
Hard-edged ____

3. TEXTURES

What kinds of textures do you see?

Implied ____
Tacule ____
Rough ____
Smooth ____
Shiny ____
Soft ____
Hard ____
Dull ____

4. COLORS

What kinds of colors do you see?

Bright ____
Soft ____
Dark ____
Strong ____

WARM COLORS:
Reds ____
Oranges ____
Yellows ____

COOL COLORS:
Blues ____
Greens ____

OPPOSITE COLORS:
Blues & Oranges ____
Reds & Greens ____
Yellows & Purples ____

NEUTRAL COLORS:
Grays ____
Whites ____
Blacks ____

5. OBJECTS

What kinds of objects do you see?

Young people ____
Old people ____
Buildings ____
Boats ____
Animals ____
Musical instrument ____
Trees ____
Sky ____
Rocks ____
Water ____
Food ____
There are no objects ____

ART CRITICISM CHECK

ANALYSIS:

STEP 2: THE DESIGN

Look at the way the facts are put together (designed)

6. BALANCE

What kind of balance is used?

- Asymmetrical (each side of the painting is different) ____
- Symmetrical (each side of the painting is similar) ____
- A bit asymmetrical (each side of the painting is a little different) ____

7. LIGHT AREAS

Squint your eyes and look at the painting. Where do you see the most light areas?

Right side ____
Bottom ____
Middle ____
Left side ____
Top ____
____

8. FOCAL POINT

What is the first thing that you see when you look at the painting? ____________________

9. ILLUSION OF SPACE

What kind of space is used?

- Deep space (painting looks like you can see for miles) ________
- Shallow space (you cannot see very far) ________
- Flat space (things do not seem very dimensional) ___

10. DARK AREAS

Squint your eyes and look at the painting

Where do you see the most dark areas?

Right side ____
Bottom ____
Middle ____
Left side ____
Top ____
____

11. RHYTHM CREATED BY REPETITION

What do you see repeated in the painting?

Lines ____
Draw the kind you see repeated the most ________
Shapes ____
Draw the kind you see repeated the most ________
Colors ____
What colors are repeated the most? ________

12. MOVEMENT

How does the artist move your eyes from one part of the picture to another? ____________________

____

____

____

____

ART CRITICISM CHECK SHEET

INTERPRETATION:

STEP 3: MEANING

What is the purpose or meaning of the art work? Now, go back and reread how you described the facts (step 1) and how those facts are put together (step 2). These are the clues to the meaning and purpose of the painting. They will help you answer the following questions.

13. The artist seems to be primarily concerned with imitating nature. Yes_____ No_____

14. The artist seems to be mostly interested in expressing a feeling or an emotion. Yes_____ No_____

15. The prime concern of this artist seems to be with lines, shapes, colors, and textures and with design or composition. Yes_____ No_____

16. Does the name of the painting tell you about its meaning or purpose? Yes_____ No_____

17. Which of the following words best describe what you think is the meaning of this art work (you may use as many words as you need and add some of your own):

Strength _____
Loneliness _____
Beauty _____
Peace _____
Love _____
Sadness _____
Madness _____
Death _____
Excitement _____
Courage _____
Horror _____
Fear _____
Hope _____
Hate _____
Anger _____
Adventure _____

Enjoyment of work _____
Interest in shapes _____
Mystery _____
War _____
Happiness _____
Old age _____
Fun _____
Interest in color _____
Complexity of design _____
Simplicity of design _____
____
____
____
____
____
____

ART CRITICISM CHECK SHEET

EVALUATION:

STEP 4: JUDGMENT
Judge the painting.

18. This painting is an excellent _____
good _____
bad _____

example of:
-imitationism (imitating nature) _____
-emotionalism (showing a feeling or emotion) _____
-formalism (making the viewer aware of lines, shapes, colors or design) _____

19. I like_____ don't like_____ this art work.

20. This work might be improved by _____
____

21. For the time or era in which this work was done_____ this work is:
typical of this period _____
a new idea for the time _____
a modification of what had previously been done _____
an entirely new idea in art history _____

22. Responses
- This work makes me think about it _____
- This work stirs up strong feelings in me_____
- This work creates order _____
- This work seems complex _____
- This work causes me to wonder about _____
____
____
____
____
____
____

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Putting Empowerment to Work in the Classroom

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At Sinte Gleska University, a tribal college on the Rosebud Sioux Reservation, we are empowering students through our teaching methods and curricular choices. Three areas have been identified as important ingredients in empowering students: validating culture, teaching to learning styles, and utilizing teaching strategies resulting in self-directed learning.

These three elements of empowerment can open up avenues of knowledge that have been previously closed to students on the Rosebud Reservation. As students discover that knowledge is powerful, they begin to learn because they want to.

Change in the fundamental ways we view ourselves as teachers is necessary in order to empower students. In addition, changes in the way we teach, assess, and interact can have a profound impact on our students.

On April 28, 1992, an English class at Crenshaw High School in South Central Los Angeles read the Lanston Hughes' poem "Harlem" (1951).

What happens to a dream deferred?

Does it dry up
like a raisin in the sun?
Or fester like a sore—
And then run?
Does it stink like rotten meat?
Or crust and sugar over—
like a syrupy sweet?

Maybe it just sags
like a heavy load.

Or does it explode?

The next day, South Central Los Angeles exploded, only hours after a Simi Valley, California, jury found four police officers innocent of the videotaped beating of Rodney King. On that same day in April, the despair that resulted in violence in Los Angeles was being drowned in alcohol on the Rosebud Sioux Reservation in southern South Dakota. Both cultures experienced the anger and anguish of being part of the have-nots of society.

Nowhere are the have-nots more evident than in the educational system, a system that has kept students oppressed. Although some steps in school reform have been taken, on the whole, the have-nots still don't have. Students in South Central Los Angeles and on the Rosebud Reservation still are not empowered in an educational environment that validates their culture, teaches to their learning styles, and employs teaching strategies that result in self-directed learning.

The "Nation at Risk" report in 1983 stated that our education system was mediocre, causing us to be behind other countries in academic achievement (National Commission on Excellence in Education, 1983). To make it better, the Commission proposed more stringent academic requirements, longer school days, a longer school year, and teachers' salaries tied to performance standards. The Commission's Conclusion, it appears, was that making education harder would make individuals want to learn more.

The commission's suggestions for reform are not only irrelevant to what is happening with the have-nots of education but are also dangerous. Children who don't want to learn will not suddenly want to because it is made harder and takes longer. We run the risk of losing these children to the streets if requirements are made more stringent without a simultaneous commitment to finding ways to nurture and encourage individuals, many of whom need desperately to be set up for success, not failure.

The Commission failed to acknowledge that our educational system has successfully disenfranchised many of its students. The goal of the public school system has been to assimilate and acculturate children into mainstream American life and to perpetuate the status quo (Spring, 1990). The public school system has been especially successful in accomplishing this goal on the Indian reservations. Students were taken away from their families and sent to boarding schools where they were forbidden to use their language, engage in ceremonies, or practice their religion (Rich, 1992; Douville, 1992). Students lost all power and control over their education and over their lives.

Power in the Classroom

William Glasser (1986) in *Control Theory in the Classroom,* concluded that schools must make education more satisfying by meeting the internal needs of students—the needs of survival, love, fun, freedom, and power. Glasser asserted that the most critical psychological need that is not being met in public schools all across the country today is the need for power. This lack of power is at the absolute core of school problems.

Sinte Gleska University, on the Rosebud Sioux Indian Reservation, serves a student population that is approximately 75% Lakota Sioux. At the University, instructors have expressed concern about the number of Lakota students who drop out of classes, fail to pass, have poor attendance, or leave the university altogether. The Lakota Studies Department and the Education Department began to analyze the relationship between traditional Lakota views of education and the current teaching strategies in different departments. This analysis revealed three areas that instructors felt could be immediately addressed.

First, we discovered that students on the Rosebud Reservation were being taught in ways that were incompatible with their traditional culture. The Lakota Studies Department saw the loss of Lakota language and Lakota ceremonies as an integral part of the disenfranchisement of the Lakota students. The Lakota Studies Department became interested in ways to empower students through cultural validation.

A second area appeared to be closely related to the first. Instructional methods were often incompatible with student's preferred learning styles. Research indicates that students are more successful when taught to their specific learning style (Dunn, Beaudry & Klavas, 1989).

The third area of concern related directly to Glasser's conclusions about power and control, that of self-directed learning. When denied the opportunity to learn in culturally compatible ways and when told what to think and how to approach their work, students lost control over their own learning.

Validation of Culture

The first element that was identified as crucial to empowerment of the students on the Rosebud Reservation was the validation of culture. School has become a place in which many cultures interact to form a microcosm of the world. Students come to school with their own set of prior experiences and assumptions about how this world works. These prior assumptions interplay with the way students understand, interpret, and eventually construct knowledge. Validating the experiences and the individual histories of all students will shift the power back to them. Educational institutions must allow students to use their culture as the basis of their educational process.

Both in South Central Los Angeles and on the Rosebud Sioux Reservation, we have cultures that are the majority in their communities. Despite the majority status of their students, the schools in L.A. and on the Rosebud Reservation are still designed around Eurocentric models. This curriculum model is the primary one in almost all schools in this country (Banks & Banks, 1993). When Lakota students go to school, they often have to leave their culture at home and attempt to learn in a culturally incompatible way.

In traditional Lakota communities, education was largely based on an oral tradition combined with experiential learning. This tradition is in direct conflict with the way schools are being designed today, with a system based on high literacy and written knowledge. In Lakota society, the goal of education is to strengthen the community and the family. Lakota society is strongly cooperative compared to the highly competitive classrooms in most colleges and universities where the emphasis is on individual skills (Douville, 1992). On the Rosebud Reservation we needed to restructure our classes, curriculum and instruction to make education compatible with cultural views.

For the Lakota people, one of the ways to accomplish this task is through increased cooperative learning. At the heart of Lakota society is the concept of the *tiospaye,* a band of individuals living together, independent of any outside means of control. Each member of the tiospaye was responsible for a specific role or area of expertise, making the survival of the tiospaye dependent upon cooperation among all members. Although the traditional tiospaye was composed of blood relatives, adopted relatives, or relatives by marriage, the concept of the tiospaye as a cooperative system can be transferred to the classroom. Just as the strength of the tiospaye depended upon the strength of each individual member, the strength of the classroom depends upon the success of all students. Cooperation is the essential element for insuring this success.

Learning becomes powerful when it teaches young people to participate in an activity for the common good, when they can ask for help from their peers, and when they can help others. Working cooperatively prepares young people for real life by revealing the life skills necessary to achieve a goal or vision (Slavin, 1983; Johnson, Johnson and Smith, 1991).

Learning Styles

The second area vital to giving students back control over their own learning is to teach to students' individual learning styles. At Sinte we began to look at teachers' instructional methods to determine if the methods used were providing an opportunity for all students to learn according to their strongest modality.

As mentioned before, traditional Lakota education is largely oral and experientially based. Many of our students, when given a learning styles inventory, The Productivity Environmental Preference Survey, PEPS (Dunn, Dunn & Price, 1992), indicated a preference for auditory presentations combined with tactile/kinesthetic learning experiences. The students do not respond well to strictly lecture. In our education classes we provide instruction utilizing different modalities. Auditory presentations are combined with visual demonstrations. Virtually all concepts are then explored through hands-on activities. Workshops are being developed to help teachers at Sinte offer instruction that will better meet the needs of students with diverse perceptual strengths.

Self-Directed Learning

The third area identified as important in empowering students is self-directed learning. A decade before the "Nation at Risk" report, Jerome Bruner (1973) stated that "our aim as teachers is to give our students as firm a grasp of a subject as we can, and to make him (her) as autonomous and self-propelled a thinker as we can—one who will go along on his (her) own after formal schooling has ended" (p. 403). Bruner's theory centers the classroom in discovery learning, requiring the students to be active participants and thus empowering students who may feel that they do not have the power to affect their own lives.

A third grader recently told us what he thought was wrong with school. "They never give me any choices," he said. "They tell me what to read, when to talk, how to write, when to eat. They tell me when to wear my coat on the playground. They even tell me where to play." This boy has understood at an early age one of the significant problems in our public school system. This student had already lost power and control over his learning.

Self-directed learning allows students to take part in the formulation of the learning process and play the principle role in it. The students make the important decisions about how they are going to find out something. Students involved in the actual activity learn not only content but also learn the process of learning.

In addition, self-directed learning teaches students how to think. When students are allowed to participate in the essential processes of thinking, they move to higher levels of thinking. They recall information, analyze it, evaluate it, and arrive at answers through the synthesis of a multitude of inputs in a holistic and integrated manner. This way of learning is compatible with the Lakota focus on demonstration-based learning and experiential activities.

The majority of students involved in research at Sinte, however, indicated on the PEPS that they have a high need for structure in the classroom. This need is reflected in their requests to be given direct instructions for assignments. They want to be told exactly what is required of them. We feel that the need for structure is the result of being in a public school system that did not encourage or reward risk taking and that required error-free learning.

Too often students have been told what to think, how to think, and how to let us know what they think. Our university may continue to contribute to this reliance on authority figures through our emphasis on correct answer, multiple choice, fill in the blank tests. When we have strict requirements and strict time lines, we are taking away students' ability to make choices about their own learning. We must begin to look at new ways of delivering classes and alternative ways of assessing knowledge.

Professors at Sinte are beginning to look at portfolio and authentic ways of assessing knowledge. We are attempting to provide more choices in projects and reading assignments. Students are being allowed to do more collaborative projects and to construct their knowledge in ways that make sense to them.

This process is often uncomfortable for professors who have been trained to be the authority figure in a classroom. It is equally uncomfortable for students who have rarely been allowed to become self-sufficient learners. Self-directed learning requires that we trust our students and give them the power that so many professors want to hold on to.

Self-directed learning presents problems at the university level. The obvious problem is convincing the students that they can think for themselves. In addition, the bookstore wants our book orders early, before we even meet our students. The Office of Academic Affairs wants our syllabus. Many professors have been teaching the same way for years even with computerized lesson plans. Finally, we have to give that grade.

Enough of excuses. To give students access to power, we must begin to develop ways to give control of learning back to them. We must empower students to think, to direct their own activities, and to be assessed in ways that are comfortable; at the same time, we need to help them stretch their comfort zone.

These three areas of empowerment—validation of culture, teaching to learning styles, and self-directed learning—can open up avenues to knowledge that have been previously closed to students on the Rosebud Reservation. As they discover that knowledge is powerful, they understand, in a profound way, that with knowledge they have the power to get what they want in life. They learn because they want to.

The quest is not over. Sinte Gleska University is only just beginning to develop ways to better meet the needs of its students. But we are continuing to ask significant questions. Are we providing instruction that meets the needs of all perceptual preferences? Are we helping students become independent self-directed learners? Do we have a tolerance for risk taking? Are we providing group learning experiences for those students who learn best through peer interactions? Are our classrooms designed to maximize learning? Are we allowing students to construct their own knowledge out of their own experiences?

The conditions that led to the despair that is being drowned in alcohol can be turned around. What happens to that dream deferred? It dries up. Through empowerment, that dream can be realized.

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Increasing Sensitivity to Diversity: Empowering Students

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This paper describes a model program for increasing sensitivity to diversity in an academic environment. To improve the learning environment for all students, faculty developers provide educational programs that enhance the faculty's understanding of differences related to gender, race, ethnicity, culture, religion, sexual orientation, and physical abilities. This report highlights the process of working closely with students to design and implement an orientation program for first-year students to increase an awareness of the influence of diversity on their learning and working together.

Introduction

As faculty developers, we frequently raise issues related to diversity in educational workshops and seminars for faculty and staff (Cooper & Chattergy, 1993; Wadsworth, 1992; Wunsch & Chattergy, 1991). In many cases, we design programs to increase the faculty's understanding of differences among student populations so that they may be more sensitive to the needs and concerns of their learners. Differences in gender, race, ethnicity, culture, religion, sexual orientation, and physical abilities may have varying influences on the learning needs, styles, and abilities of students. As faculty become more aware of these differences, they are more likely to appreciate and respect the diversity within the classroom. They may not only change their own behaviors in relationship to students but learn to deal effectively with the insensitive and inappropriate behaviors that may be expressed by students and other faculty.

Each educational institution has addressed the area of diversity with policies, guidelines, and programs that are consonant with their own educational mission and organizational structure (Beauvais, 1986; Johnston, 1992; Mao, Bullock, Harway, & Khalsa, 1988; Thomann, 1989). The Office of Educational Development at Yale University School of Medicine has developed a variety of workshops and seminars for faculty and housestaff at the Medical Center. All of these programs are designed to increase sensitivity to diversity in a medical setting. Faculty and housestaff identify and discuss problems they encounter in working with a diverse population of students, as well as with patients, staff, and other health-care professionals.

Developing Student Programs

Another approach to increasing sensitivity to diversity is to work directly with students on the issues that most concern them. Students who have an opportunity to bring forward their own issues increase their understanding of the effects that diversity has on learning, teaching, and working together. In addition, they develop a sense of confidence in sharing their beliefs, thoughts, and feelings, not only with their peers, but also with faculty and staff within and outside of the classroom.

In the past few years the Office of Educational Development has worked with students to design educational programs that reflect their own particular needs and concerns. The diversity workshop during orientation was especially noteworthy because students were actively engaged in planning and implementing this activity. Many schools now provide orientation seminars or workshops that encourage students to acknowledge and respect the diversity of the student population in the educational environment. Although the focus may be on increasing students' understanding of one another's differences, these programs often prepare students to handle some of the difficult situations that they might face in a particular learning environment. In medical schools these programs are often offered by staff in the Offices of the Dean, Student Affairs, or Minority Affairs.

In the summer of 1993, second-year students at Yale School of Medicine asked to be part of the planning and implementation of the three-hour diversity workshop that has been required for all first-year students for the past six years. Because of their active leadership, students were given an opportunity to create the entire workshop with the support of the Offices of Educational Development, Minority Affairs, and Women in Medicine.

As stated in the written material given to the students (*Yale Diversity Workshop Packet*, 1993), the purpose of the program was:

> to open a dialogue in which issues of diversity and discrimination which affect all of us can be discussed. You and your medical school colleagues will be working closely with one another over the next four years and with the medical community for many years to come. You may be put in critical and stressful situations which will require you to trust each other and rely on one another completely. It is our hope that the discussion today will aid in developing the mutual respect for one another that will carry you through the next four years and throughout the rest of your professional careers. (p. 3)

Format

The educational program was designed to be highly interactive, maximizing the involvement of all 100 new students. The format consisted of a brief introduction, a description of student support groups, a panel discussion, and a small group discussion.

The introduction by the Medical Student Council President set the tone for engaging students in an informal and open discussion of issues related to differences. She stated that the purpose of the workshop was "to open a dialogue, not to preach, but rather to raise issues we feel are important to be aware of."

Representatives from several student groups shared information about the services their groups provide. Leaders from the Asian Americans in Yale Medicine, the Student National Medical Association, the Lambda Health Alliance, the Committee on the Well-Being of Students, and the Office of Women in Medicine presented an overview of their programs.

During the panel discussion, members from these same groups read three separate cases of situations in which inappropriate or insensitive behaviors were expressed. Following the reading of each case, students in the audience were asked to respond, answering specific questions that were meant to engage students in dialogue about issues related to diversity. A sample case with questions follows:

> In a local restaurant, you overhear someone speaking in an angry, disgusted tone. You turn around and are surprised to find that the comments are coming from your ward-attending physician. He/she doesn't see you. The physician has launched into an argument about deviant homosexuals and you suddenly realize that a fellow classmate's name keeps popping up in the conversation. You think you overhear the attending physician state that he/she is going to "get your classmate" next week in rounds.
>
> What do you do?
>
> Do you:
>
> 1. Say nothing and assume your friend can handle him/herself in rounds?
>
> 2. Tell your friend about the conversation and warn him/her before rounds?
>
> 3. Inform your dean/administrator about the conversation you overheard?
>
> 4. Attend rounds yourself and interrupt the behavior if it occurs?
>
> 5. Confront the physician in the restaurant or the next day regarding the conversation you overheard?
>
> 6. Casually walk by his/her table so that you are seen, but say nothing?

The small group discussions that followed the panel were the highlight of the program. Students were divided into small groups to discuss any issues related to their concerns about diversity. Each group was composed of nine first-year students and two upper-class students who facilitated the discussion for 1½ hours. The 22 facilitators had no set agenda, but were prepared during a workshop to promote an interactive session. No faculty participated in the small groups. The student facilitators believed that students would feel more comfortable interacting with only their peers in attendance.

Faculty Development Role

The role of the faculty developer in the project was three-fold. Throughout the planning phase, she enthusiastically supported the students in their effort to design an educational program that addressed their concerns. She asked questions that helped the students to clarify the rationale for this experience and to design a format that was highly interactive. In addition, the faculty developer planned and implemented a one-hour workshop to prepare them to act as facilitators during the small group discussions. Following a brief description of verbal and nonverbal behaviors exhibited by facilitators, she used an interactive format to increase the students' comfort and skills in leading small groups. Among other topics, they discussed how to handle students who might be quiet, loquacious, or antagonistic. To evaluate this program, the faculty developer worked closely with the president of the Medical School Council to develop a questionnaire (see Appendix A) that asked students to assess the effectiveness of the program in meeting their needs.

Results

Eighty-three percent of the students reported that the sensitivity workshop was effective, very effective, or highly effective. About half of the participants stated that the small group discussion was the best part of the workshop, and half reported that the panel with audience discussion of vignettes was the most significant. It was clear that the vignettes encouraged students to discuss strategies for solving specific problems. Additional comments suggested that the workshop was successful in meeting stated objectives: "I liked best the exposure to things I had not thought about before. Most students were honest and forthright in their remarks. I preferred the small group discussion[s]; they allowed people to be more honest and open about their feelings. Hopefully [these sessions will] set a good tone/precedent for continuing dialogue during our time at Yale."

From my own observations during the first part of the workshop, I was impressed by the amount of interaction and the thoughtfulness of first-year student responses. Students were remarkably thoughtful in their reactions during the panel discussion. Many students were eager to respond, sharing a wide range of thoughts and feelings related to the dilemmas raised in the cases.

The 22 upper-class students who facilitated the small group sessions believed that this had been a powerful learning experience for them, as well as for their group members. They confirmed that the first-year students seemed very pleased with an opportunity to talk about issues related to diversity and discrimination. The students were tremendously pleased with their efforts and plan to continue this orientation program as a student initiative next year.

The upper-class students also appreciated the opportunity to learn skills in group process during the facilitator workshop prior to the orientation session. The focus on listening and responding skills increased their confidence and comfort in working with students in the area of diversity. We expect to have the same workshop for our small group leaders next year.

Discussion

The message that diversity is an important concern at the Medical Center may best be conveyed by students. Even with the best intentions, presentations by faculty and staff can be perceived as preachy and patronizing. A moralizing tone can create even more resistance to thinking constructively about diversity. If the goal during orientation is to increase first-year students' comfort in thinking and talking about diversity, then it may be more helpful to have upper-class students facilitate this process.

Students who take responsibility for creating and implementing an educational program for their colleagues are likely to become empowered to speak out on issues that will confront them throughout their medical careers. As each of us learns to communicate our beliefs, thoughts, and feelings, we increase our understanding of commonalities as well as differences. As we begin to understand one another, we are more likely to create a collegial environment that promotes mutual trust and respect.

Faculty developers in educational institutions may be competent and skilled in working with faculty on the topic of diversity. It is natural that they offer support to students in designing the educational programs that will be most useful to their specific needs. Whether during orientation or on other occasions when requested by students, educational programs designed with and for students can be beneficial in promoting a greater understanding of and respect for diversity.

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APPENDIX A
Diversity Workshop Evaluation

1. Please rate the overall effectiveness of the diversity workshop.

1	2	3	4	5
not effective	fairly effective	effective	very effective	highly effective

2. What did you like best about the workshop?

3. What were your impressions of:

Panel, large group activity?

Cases?

Small group?

Handouts?

4. What changes would you recommend for improving the workshop?

5. Would you like to participate in additional workshops throughout the year?

Leveling the Playing Field

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To promote equity in education the authors contend that teachers must: 1) hear all the voices in their classrooms, 2) distribute power so students can vocalize, 3) establish ground rules with students on how to interact in the classroom, and 4) use active teaching and learning strategies in their classrooms. By employing each of these four strategies, the authors believe the educational playing field will become level, enabling all to participate equitably in attaining educations.

In "Sexism in the Classroom: From Grade School to Graduate School," Myra and David Sadker suggest that "classrooms [are] characterized by a more general environment of inequity" (1990, p. 10). Simply put, in the classroom, teachers treat students as either the "haves" or "have nots." Ten percent of the students in a classroom have the opportunity to be interaction rich, the stars. The Sadkers point out that "bias in classroom interaction inhibits student achievement" (p. 10). Certainly that is not what teachers want for the majority of their students. If teachers level the playing field by following established ground rules and employing active teaching practices, all students will be enabled to participate, to have their voices heard, and to be contributing members of an educational team.

In this article, the authors begin by addressing the need for all voices to be heard. This can be accomplished if the coach teaches the players how to play the game and the teacher relinquishes some control and empowers the students. A discussion on the distribution of power and the establishment of ground rules for class discussion composes the second section of the article. Finally, the authors identify a number of active teaching and learning strategies designed to let all players in the classroom participate equitably.

Hearing All the Voices and Distributing Power

Faculty need to relinquish a bit of their authority to create an oppression-free learning environment in which the varied voices of all students—regardless of age, race, gender, national origin, religion, sexual orientation, class, and/or able-bodiedness—can be heard. Although Catherine G. Krupnick's work is focused on gender issues, it can be applied more broadly to combatting the 'isms of the 1990s. Krupnick, author of "Women and Men in the Classroom: Inequality and Its Remedies," reports on a year-long study of the communication patterns in 24 different Harvard classrooms. She relates that in the predominant classroom circumstance in coeducational higher education institutions (a male teacher with a majority of male students), males speak two-and-a-half times longer than their female peers (1985, p. 18). A bit of good news is that female instructors seem to inspire female students; the study shows that women speak three times longer in classes led by females. However, the study indicates that in no mix of genders among teachers and students do women students speak as much as men in coeducational settings. Men dominate mixed discussion in and out of the classroom (p. 19). It seems reasonable to infer that a broader range of instructors, representing more and different kinds of people, might serve to encourage participation among students. But, it is imperative that all instructors, regardless of who they are, become consciously aware of the kinds of communication patterns they have been using and how those patterns influence the way they interact with students. Awareness of the behaviors teachers use can lead to acknowledgement of how those behaviors can stifle or encourage students in their classrooms.

To make coeducation **equal** education, faculty must develop an awareness of how male and female speech **patterns** have been culturally acquired which may well be due to power imbalances in society (Parlee, 1989). Again, the case of gender can be applied more broadly to concerns regarding race, ability, sexual orientation, and so forth. Faculty need to aid many different students in developing fluency and eliminating verbal hesitancy in the classroom. Teachers must bring to a conscious level—for themselves and for their students—women's and other minority members' tendency to underparticipate in a white, male-dominated classroom. All students need equal opportunity to express themselves in order to internalize content and practice inquiry styles. Instructors have the power to facilitate growth, to create opportunities for equal education; hearing all the voices should be a major thrust in teaching, regardless of one's academic discipline.

The teacher has to structure equality into the classroom, not just through communication patterns, but also through the choice of teaching mode, the structuring of exercises, and the questioning strategies used. Teachers should intentionally structure interactive activities so students have opportunities to think on their own. For example, teachers might ask students to reflect on questions posed by first writing down their own thoughts, talking with other students, and then engaging in broader class discussion. An exercise designed like this is more likely to engender active student involvement in class discussion; students are much more likely to make comments when they feel more confident about what they want to say because they have first clarified their thoughts in writing and in a small group setting. Expressing ideas in comfortable, nonintimidating situations builds students' self-esteem. To reiterate, not only is it essential to be consciously aware of communication patterns being fostered in the classroom, it is likewise essential to be aware that creating an equitable playing field is directly related to power distribution, teaching mode, and questioning strategies.

All instructors need to reflect on their power distribution in the classroom. The authority figure, the teacher, is the possessor of power in the classroom, unless she chooses to be otherwise. A learning environment in which all voices are heard on a regular basis can be consciously designed. But to do this, the teacher must relinquish some power by being a teacher, not a teller; the teacher must empower students. Through self-reflection and interaction with an instructional development consultant or trusted colleague, the teacher can assess the degree of control being maintained in the classroom. In many instances, the more power given away, the easier it is for students to learn. Providing opportunity for verbalizing assists students in internalizing knowledge and inquiry methods.

Examining the case of gender further, Krupnick's study isolates four factors which decrease women's access to discourse: "their demographic status as members of a minority in the classroom; their inability or unwillingness to compete against men; their vulnerability to interruption; and the fact that men and women talk in runs, which tends to keep female participation low" (1985, p. 21). The runs referred to are extensive periods of predominantly male talk followed by short spurts of all-female talk, with lots of females' comments overlapping. The tapes in the Harvard-Danforth study give evidence that women, not male students or authority figures, most often interrupt other female students (p. 20). Instructors need to help the voiceless be heard by monitoring power distribution in the classroom.

Agreeing on Ground Rules: Establishing Rules of Play

One way to create a more equitable classroom is to set up ground rules on the first day of class. As Lynn Cannon points out, "If learning is to take place, it may well be best if privileged groups listen more than talk, and others talk more than usual" (1990, p. 129). Cannon suggests establishing ground rules for class discussion to help redistribute the power and create a safe environment for open discussion. Although the rules are most effective when student discussion generates the agreed upon ground rules, a paraphrased version of Cannon's ground rules, which follows, will help instructors guide a class in creating its own rules:

- Discrimination exists in many forms (e.g., sexism, racism, classism, ageism, homophobia, antisemitism, ableism, etc.).
- Any critical understanding of these various 'isms means we need to recognize that we have been taught misinformation about our own group as well as about members of other groups. This is true for both dominant (e.g., white, male, upper class, heterosexual, able-bodied, etc.) and subordinated (e.g., people of color, women,

poor, working class, gay/lesbian, disabled, Jewish, etc.) group members.

- We cannot be blamed for misinformation we have learned.
- People and groups are not to be blamed for their subordinate positions.
- People are always doing the best they can.
- We must actively pursue information about our own groups and those of others. We must share information about our own groups with other members in the course but never demean, devalue, or in any way put down people for their experiences.
- We each have an obligation to actively combat the myths and stereotypes about our own groups and other groups so that we can break down the walls which prohibit group cooperation and group gain.

The ground rules should be unique to each classroom, emerging from interaction between teacher and students. Once the rules have been agreed upon, it becomes clear that taking the time away from content to reach consensus over the rules of the game yields rich rewards in the quality and distribution of student contributions.

The classroom is not an ordinary public forum. It is a **restricted** environment. This is not to say that it should be a **restrictive** environment; rather, it should be a **responsible** one, and that implies certain rules and obligations which structure the class. Teachers have an obligation to create a safe milieu for learning. The ground rules are designed to do just that.

The essence of these ground rules is to establish an atmosphere of mutual respect. Those individuals who may not be a part of a mainstream power base need to know they are valued. An ideal is to engage all students in the classroom. This cannot happen if certain students in the course are cast in the role of "other" or "outsider" by virtue of classroom topics or discussion. When, through the use of epithets or stereotypical myths students are identified as not being like everyone else, there is a danger they will be shut out of classroom activities. By asserting the need for mutual respect, instructors and students embrace the differences that exist in society and also in classes. More and further-reaching discussion is propelled by welcoming diversity. If students feel that they are comfortable enough, safe enough to participate that their participation is welcomed and valued, better communication and hence greater learning will occur.

Professors use powerful words, and there is always a risk that teachers will intimidate students simply by entering the classroom. The professor, automatically, is assigned a role of authority and thus appears to have tremendous power. It is absolutely necessary for the professor to discuss the ground rules with the students. Each person must understand the responsibilities he or she has. Often, while discussing these rules, students resist the idea that certain words should be squelched. It is important that all students in the classroom know where the others stand so they can argue more effectively and constructively with each other and arrive at a place closer to that unattainable ideal—truth. The object of the ground rules is to restrict name-calling, not discussion of ideas. This is an absolutely vital distinction. The Supreme Court, although rejecting the concept of hate crimes, has recognized "fighting words" as unprotected by the First Amendment. Name-calling can be viewed as a form of fighting words. Most people have been sensitized about the impact of the words "fag" or "nigger" or the phrase "jewed down." It's not too difficult to imagine the anger a woman feels when she hears another person say, "What a dumb bitch." Language *does* have power. Fighting words inspire an intense emotional response that at worst leads to violence and bloodshed. All freedoms are limited because with freedom comes responsibility. Essentially, the ground rules enforce good debating practices by systematically avoiding the use of such argumentatively fallacious practices as over-broad generalizations, ad hominem attacks, and so on.

The fundamental assumption that people are doing the best they can, as stated in the ground rules, promotes an attitude of respect for each other as individuals. With mutual respect as the prevalent attitude, discussants avoid the pitfalls of name-calling and slur-slinging. Feedback from students in classes at the University of Minnesota, Duluth (UMD), where these ground rules have been implemented, shows that students feel invited to offer their own points of view in class discussions guided by ground rules. A typical statement from a student in a UMD journalism class of 168 students was: "I really like our class discussions. It makes me feel as though I have something important to say." When students feel safe, the floodgates open for more diverse expression. Articulating personal positions empowers people. Allowing the use of hurtful, hateful names and myths/mis-information empowers some at the expense of others. The ground rules help establish a classroom climate of equity, but they alone do not go far enough in the pursuit of engendering student activity and involvement.

Putting Equitable Learning Strategies into Action

In addition to creating a safe environment by establishing ground rules, faculty can employ active learning strategies which pay particular attention to student communication patterns. Faculty members might try one or two of the following techniques if they are not already using them.

- Teachers must be consciously aware of the communication patterns which are encouraged in their classrooms.

To become aware, a teacher may want to ask a colleague or an instructional development consultant to observe in-class behavior. Are gender runs present? Are students interrupting one another? Are just a few students dominating the discussion? How long is a given student's response?

To facilitate the recording of communication patterns in classrooms, the instructor should provide the observer with a sketch of the classroom, with students identified by name if possible. The professor, together with the consultant, should develop a code to identify the types of interactions (?=student asks question; ?R=student responds to teacher question; SC=student comments on previous statement; SI=student offers additional information; etc.). The consultant, or other observer, can then number the order of interactions and indicate gender or other identifiers if no seating chart is available.

Once one becomes aware of the patterns used in the classroom and desires to change them, a useful tool, which was shared by Krupnick at a Harvard workshop (1991), is the tic-tac-toe approach.

The teacher merely draws the tic-tac-toe board on a piece of paper, keeping handy throughout the class. As discussion occurs, the teacher and a possible observer record the order of the students' responses with a specific reference to gender. As the teacher facilitates the class, responses by gender or other classification should be alternated proportionately to the classroom population. By changing the location of the responses in the classroom, one is more likely to capture and hold students' attention.

For example, if one is teaching in a large lecture hall, one might divide the classroom into nine sectors similar to that of a tic-tac-toe game pattern. After posing a question and waiting a sufficient time for the students to process the question, the teacher might look for a respondent in the lower left-hand sector. If a female responds, an F1 is recorded in the sector. After waiting for students to process the next question, the teacher might then seek a response from a male student in the upper-middle sector. Hearing a variety of voices is the purpose, so if the first responder were a white female, the teacher might then look for a male person of color to respond next. The next person called upon might come from the center-middle sector and be a differently abled female. It is a relatively simple matter to equalize participation by calling on students in nonadjacent blocks. This sequence of responses is recorded on figure 1.

FIGURE 1

M5	M2	F8
	F3	M6
F1	M7	F4

An instructor can easily record this sequence while discussing course content. Keeping track of this sequencing enables many more student voices to be heard, and the teacher has a convenient visual record of what is happening on the classroom playing field.

If the teacher does not know the students by name, from the first day of class the instructor might have them preface their responses or remarks by stating their names. Faculty members can make a mental note of each name, repeating it to themselves and making an effort to connect the name with the face. It is amazing how much this technique enhances community; the students not only introduce themselves to the teacher but also to each other. (This technique works in many group settings. Readers are encouraged to try it when presenting at a national conference.)

- The truth of the matter, however, is one becomes a much better facilitator of equitable education in classrooms if one learns students' names.

Teachers can equalize contributions by being able to direct response patterns. "Hey, you've said enough" is not as conducive to learning as "Jack, we appreciated your input during the last class. Now, Mary, what did you think about Jack's idea...?"

Using computer-generated or student-written nameplates propped on the desk is yet another aid to both teacher and students in learning everyone's name. By helping students become acquainted, the teacher is increasing the chance of extending the learning community beyond the classroom. *The Harvard Assessment Seminar First Report* (1990, p. 21) shows that many students may well learn more outside of the classroom than in it, so it pays to help them network. (Caution: Faculty should not become nameplate dependent; nameplates are just a temporary tool to help learn names.)

Of course, faculty can use UMD literature teacher Steve Adam's idea of taking Polaroid "family" portraits the first day of class. As the pictures develop, students write their names on their group picture and attach their completed personal information sheets. Adams studies the information sheets and the pictures to enable him to call each of 80 by name by the end of Week One. Another UMD faculty member, Helen Rallis, Education, astonishes her class on the second day by addressing each student by name. The first day Rallis has all students introduce themselves on videotape, telling something memorable about themselves, such as where they are from, and so forth. Before the next class, she reviews the tape until she can name each student.

It is much easier to hear all students' voices if the teacher knows who the students are and can modulate participation patterns by calling on them. In addition, this technique allows the teacher to more readily control gender and dominant group runs. And, the teacher will no longer be dependent upon the students who volunteer. Many teachers get superficial responses by calling on those first waving hands. Yes, there are shy students, but all should be ready to comment on assigned reading. Students are more reticent in large classes, so teachers must patiently persevere. If the teacher does not speak, a student eventually will. If the professor relies on a few eager volunteers for several class periods in a row, a communication pattern develops which stifles the less eager, potentially more analytical responders. As a classroom facilitator, instructors must ignite the desire to learn by providing opportunities for all students to vocalize and own the material being explored.

As the class progresses, one might try a method UMD's Charlotte MacLeod, Women's Studies and Medical School, uses. The teacher poses a question or makes a statement for discussion and then calls on a student. Once that student has spoken, the ***student*** calls on the next person to speak. If the teacher wants to reenter the discussion, she must also be called on by the previous speaker. This is a difficult practice for some teachers to put into action because they feel they are relinquishing control. The feeling of loss is more than made up for — by the variety and quality of student responses — when this technique is effectively used. Students do want to hear what other students have to say; students do learn from each other.

- An excellent and time-efficient device to get feedback and to hear student voices is K. Patricia Cross's "One Minute Paper."

In essence, the teacher stops class two or three minutes before the time expires and has students anonymously answer:

1) What is the big point you learned in class today?

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2) What are the main unanswered questions you leave class with today? (Light, 1990, p. 36)

Professor Frederick Mosteller, when teaching a basic statistical methods class at Harvard, extended Cross's idea. He decided to summarize briefly the answers to those two questions and distribute them in class the next day (Light, p. 37). His students could hear each other's voices and get a sense of how they were doing in relationship to other students. In addition, they had a record of what they were learning.

- The professor's classroom demeanor, how the teacher structures activities, and the instructor's body language speak volumes to students.

If teachers ask a question during a lecture, it should not be allowed to become unintentionally rhetorical. The teacher should WAIT. Professors should actually count to 5 or 10 and walk about the room, not looking at the students but giving them freedom to think as the teacher's body language tells them that he or she is patiently awaiting a reply. If one can tolerate the silence, an answer will be forthcoming. If the teacher nods, shows receptivity to the ideas expressed, and does not comment, it is quite likely a student will respond to the first student's statement; a dialogue among students often ensues. These voices, the teacher's and the students', can be heard only if the teacher intentionally orchestrates effective communication patterns in the classroom.

- As mentioned previously, exercise design is crucial in promoting equitable participation.

Incorporating a few of the following suggestions can help broaden the participation base of the classroom:

- Focus students' thoughts by having them anonymously write for a few minutes on a given topic. Collect and randomly distribute the papers. Hear all the voices by having each student read the paper in hand. This technique jump starts discussion. (In reality, this is pretty tough to do in a class where there are 200 students, so a variation of this is: Each student does a three-minute discovery writing. Five students are assigned to a group. This group of five gives another group its papers, and each group reads the responses of the other group's members. This is used as a basis for discussion.) Using other people's ideas as starters enables students to express themselves more freely.

- Have small groups record on newsprint the ideas they have generated. Taping their newsprint sheets to the wall surrounds the class with a product—their own.
- Eliminate repetition and save time in small group reports by having groups check off and not restate duplicate ideas.
- Have students share a lesson learned, discuss a point, or reach a conclusion with a neighboring student in the classroom.

Incorporating all of the above elements into the design of classroom activities enables the teacher to hear a choir of student voices, each singing its own distinctive part.

- Listen.

When students begin statements in class, teachers should not assume they know what the students are going to say. Teachers should not cut off the students; rather, they should listen and reflect. One never knows — another student may respond if the teacher is not talking. Alternatively, instructors might choose to facilitate discussion by repeating what the students have said. This technique allows the faculty members to check that what they think the student said is actually what the student intended to say. It also broadcasts students' ideas from one sector of the classroom to other sectors (sometimes students' voices do not carry).

To hear all students' voices, teachers must, if they have not already done so, transform their teaching and become practitioners of interactive strategies which promote equal coeducation in higher education.

Conclusion

Remember: It doesn't matter who wins; it's how one plays the game. But the coach is the one who decides who plays. The teacher, the coach of the educational team in the classroom, has the responsibility to work with team members to give all voices an airing; to facilitate the redistribution of power; to generate equitable, agreed upon ground rules; and to implement active teaching and learning strategies. The playing field then becomes level for all to achieve their personal bests.

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Section III

Listening to Each Other

As instructional developers, we need to remain constantly aware of what faculty and students are really experiencing in the classroom. Olsen and Simmons report the results of a study of 114 faculty at a research university. The study sought to identify "Faculty Perceptions of Undergraduate Teaching." While the participants "devoted the largest percentage of their time to teaching (44%)," they improved their courses "based on changes in the discipline (e.g., newly published articles, texts, etc.), student evaluations, and discussions with other faculty." Few faculty read about or attended workshops about teaching.

In "Creating Teaching and Learning Partnerships with our Students: Helping Faculty Listen to Student Voices" Helen Rallis suggests ways faculty can assess how students are responding to their classroom. Based on surveys done in her own courses, Rallis also points to some specific things faculty can do to improve their teaching.

Students prefer faculty who are "fair." Fairness includes handing graded assignments back in a timely manner, applying rules equally, taking effort into consideration as part of grading, and grading students on their individual rather than group contributions. In a study of 300 undergraduate students, Rodabaugh found that "College students are more concerned with fairness in the classroom than with easy grades or brilliant lectures. Students do not object to strict rules as long as the rules are fair and administered equally."

Faculty Perceptions of Undergraduate Teaching

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The purpose of this study was to construct an accurate depiction of the undergraduate teaching portion of the faculty role at a large, public research university, drawing from interviews conducted with 114 faculty. The interview schedule investigated teaching load, course goals, perceptions of undergraduate students, modes of evaluating student learning, office hours and advising, professional role interests and time allocation, feedback about teaching performance, strategies for improving teaching, and satisfaction with teaching. The findings of the current study reveal that faculty are highly committed to undergraduate teaching and are profoundly concerned with students' intellectual development. Results also suggest how complex college teaching has become in terms of the range of preparation, abilities, and motivation students bring to the classroom; the difficulties inherent in creating an active, engaging learning environment in large lecture courses, and the competition faculty face from other professional demands upon them. Despite an interest in their undergraduate teaching role, faculty remain perplexed by students' lack of interest in a subject matter faculty find compelling, by new technologies and techniques that take time and resources to master, and by escalating external demands to teach more and teach better, without a clear understanding of what this means or how it is to be accomplished. Nevertheless, in the face of significant challenges, the majority of

faculty find satisfaction in teaching and interacting with undergraduate students.

The trademarks of prestigious research universities are well-known: their programs of research are on the cutting edge of discovery and progress, spearheaded by esteemed researchers and scholars who sucessfully garner financial support to sustain their enterprises. But what of the role of undergraduate teaching within such institutions, particularly large public universities? What sorts of teaching activities, practices, and attitudes prevail and characterize scholars *in the classroom*? How do such faculty feel about the undergraduate students they teach and their teaching itself? How do they assess student learning and the effectiveness of their own teaching? Has the success in the research domain come at the expense of interest, satisfaction, and effectiveness in teaching undergraduate students?

Debate over the conflict between research and teaching is certainly not new. However, the downswing of the nation's economy (and the consequent emphasis on fiscal accountability), the rise of the student consumer movement, and the proliferation of books and articles in the popular press bashing higher education have brought a new urgency and perhaps even a new way of thinking to the debate. Re-examination of faculty roles requires, however, reliable and specific information on the nature of faculty's current endeavors, particularly in the area of teaching where documentation and evaluation have traditionally been more limited.

The purpose of this study was to construct an accurate depiction of the undergraduate teaching portion of the faculty role at a large public research university, drawing from faculty's own perceptions of their teaching activities; the manner in which they carry out these responsibilities; and the meaning, sense, and satisfaction they derive from their teaching experiences. In doing so, we hoped not only to establish a body of baseline empirical data on the teaching activities of the faculty at this institution but also to compare the pedagogical behaviors and attitudes of these faculty to those the literature suggests are conducive to the intellectual development of undergraduate students. Finally, we hoped that the effort would help us begin to identify factors that contribute to sustained faculty interest and vitality in undergraduate teaching throughout the course of a career, and conversely, those which may lead to disinterest, demoralization, and teaching ineffectiveness.

In the Spring of 1992, 114 faculty from the School of Business (13%) and the College of Arts and Sciences (87%) were interviewed about their undergraduate students and their undergraduate teaching. An interview schedule (available from authors), developed from previous faculty interviews and the literature on college teaching, investigated teaching load, course goals, perceptions of undergraduate students, modes of evaluating student learning, office hours and advising, professional role interests and time allocation, feedback about teaching performance, and strategies for improving teaching. Interview data were supplemented with a questionnaire designed to assess faculty's use of specific instructional practices (Chickering, Gamson, & Barsi, 1987). The vast majority of faculty (83%) contacted agreed to participate; all had taught at least one undergraduate course in the past two years. Of the faculty in the College of Arts and Sciences, 41% were in the Arts and Humanities, 29% in the Social Sciences, and 31% in the Hard Sciences. Eighty-three percent of respondents were male and 92% were white; males and whites were somewhat overrepresented in our sample due to uneven sample attrition. Four-and-one-half percent of the sample were Asian, and less than 4% were African-American, Hispanic, Native-American, or "other." Of those interviewed, 30% were assistant professors, 30% were associate professors, and 40% were (full) professors. Faculty had spent a mean of 12 years at the university.

Teaching Load

Faculty participating in the study indicated an average load of about 3.7 courses compared to a campus-wide load of about 3.9 per year, roughly comprised of three undergraduate and one graduate course per year. The average class size was 62 students. About two-thirds of faculty reported teaching at least one course at the freshman or sophomore level.

Faculty were also asked about how they allocate their time. Empirical data have consistently confirmed that faculty at Research I universities work a 55 to 60 hour week (Mingle, 1993). Overall, faculty in our sample devoted the largest percentage of their (44%) time to teaching and the smallest (21%) to service. Research activities comprised 35% of their time. (Campus figures were comparable to national data for public research universities) (National Center for Education Statistics, 1991). Out-of-class teaching tasks (preparation, grading, office hours) required more than twice as much time as spent in-class.

Faculty responses indicated high levels of input about choice and scheduling of courses. Interestingly, almost 75% rated their teaching load as reasonable or very reasonable in terms of the professional demands upon them, but only 53% gave the same ratings when considering students' needs.

Teaching Goals

Successful strategists, from winning basketball coaches to military heroes, have defined goals or objectives and thoughtfully orchestrated plans for achieving them. College teachers are no exception. McKeachie (1993) suggests that the first step in preparing for a course is the development of course objectives because the course objectives will, in turn, drive the choice of text, the type and order of assignments, and the choice of teaching techniques. The vast majority of faculty in this study explicitly articulated the goals of their undergraduate courses in lecture and on their syllabus. Faculty reported being predominantly concerned with students' mastery of subject matter and critical thinking or the ability to effectively analyze, synthesize, and communicate that subject matter. One faculty member stated, "My goal is to bring students to intellectual maturity, to bring their reasoning performance up a level, to help them learn how to study and think inferentially, and to draw conclusions deductively." And in the words of another: "My goal is to give students preparation for life—the development of openness, flexibility, and critical thinking." An emphasis on teaching students "to think"—to comprehend the conceptual relationships among the facts and principles of a discipline—rather than on memorization of isolated concepts, definitions, and facts, is critical in formulating problem-solving skills that students will find useful in their careers and throughout the rest of their lives (McKeachie, Pintrich, Lin, & Smith, 1986). Some faculty also endorsed as fundamental to the undergraduate intellectual journey the acquisition of better perspective-taking skills and a deep-seated intellectual curiosity about the world. As one faculty stated, "Mastering material is not the main goal; in six months they won't remember much. I'm more interested in getting them interested in learning for its own sake, to get them to be more motivated and more confident about their own ability." In this way, the acquisition of disciplinary knowledge becomes the means to an end by encouraging intellectual curiosity and interest. And from another: "I want students to be able to realize that there are multiple perspectives, that there's a difference between facts and opinions...that in coming to the academy they can resituate opinions and beliefs in terms of other perspectives, not either/or...they can analyze perspectives and come to an informed opinion of their own and get beyond the notion of one right answer." Others wanted to prepare students for a career. Fewer sought course outcomes directly influencing the socio-emotional development of students.

Over half of all faculty mentioned student characteristics as a key factor in setting course goals. Although course level (introductory or advanced) and curricular requirements were also widely reported (42% and 37%, respectively), it is important that it was the background, aptitudes, and interests of students that faculty found particularly pressing, more so than purely academic notions of curricular rigor or disciplinary infrastructure.

About 75% of faculty felt that, in general, they achieved their course goals. In determining this, they relied most often on student performance on tests and exams. About half of the faculty also spoke with students from the class, gleaning ideas and impressions from these conversations. Formal student evaluations had considerably less influence. Faculty may be inclined to rely more on student comments when they know the student providing the information and, more importantly, when they are able to probe students' responses and determine more specifically which aspects of a course were successful, which were not, and why.

Student Learning: Expectations and Evaluation

Most faculty expected students to study between five and eight hours weekly (mean-seven hours) per course. These figures were substantially higher than students' own reports of the time they spent studying. (A campus study revealed that 30% of the freshmen studied 10 hours or less per week.) Nevertheless, relatively few faculty (26%) explicitly told students how much time they should be spending on their studies. Although many faculty were aware of the current emphasis on setting explicit "time on task" guidelines for students, they argued that the training and aptitudes of students in a public university vary substantially enough that such guidelines are as apt to be misleading as helpful. In a more philosophical vein, many faculty also felt that determination of study time was an issue most appropriately left, at the college-level, to students themselves.

Despite substantial recent innovation in the number and variety of methods of evaluating student learning (Angelo & Cross, 1993), faculty continue to rely on traditional formats. On average faculty used about two types of performance measures per course with far more using some form of in-class test (quizzes, exams, etc.) than any other type of evaluation. Papers, participation in class discussion, and homework were next most frequently used. This overall profile of evaluation techniques remained relatively constant although more faculty teaching at the upper level included papers and class participation in determining students' grades. In-class tests were not only the most common measure of student performance but, when employed in a course, accounted for a substantial proportion of students' grades (68%-73%). Papers, when assigned, accounted for about 40% of students' grades, and homework and class participation contributed approximately 18%. There is evidence that in-class exams tend to tap different competencies and even elicit different study methods than papers and presentations (Wolf, Schmitz, & Ellis, 1991).

Tests

When asked more specific questions about the tests and exams they typically give (those they use in at least half of the classes they teach), a majority of faculty indicated they test three times or less a semester. Consistent with these schedules, only 18% of faculty gave any type of test in the first two weeks of class and 35% gave their first exam in about the fifth week (one-third into the semester). There was a tendency for faculty teaching lower level courses to test earlier in the semester. Data thus suggested that faculty were cognizant of freshmen and sophomores' greater need for feedback to calibrate their own mastery of course materials but did not, in general, provide feedback in intervals shorter than four to five weeks.

Sixty-five percent of faculty included some type of short answer or essay question on tests (of this 65%, 12% were short answer, 22% essay, 66% both), though the practice was more common in upper level courses. Virtually all (88%) faculty tried to provide written comments on essay answers. In fact, faculty indicated that, most often, they assumed primary responsibility for grading students' tests although again, course level (and course size) made a difference. These teaching entry level courses, in particular, relied more heavily on machine grading and teaching assistants while in upper level courses faculty tended to grade tests themselves.

Almost all faculty said they have asked students to come to their office to discuss an exam, but only a third do this "frequently" or "very frequently." In general, (90%) faculty called students to their office to discuss poor performance. In addition, faculty spoke to students whose test scores were inconsistent with their other work in the course (27%), students who had misinterpreted an assignment (14%), who had cheated (16%), or who had performed exceptionally well (11%). Given recent research on pedagogy and assessment (Angelo & Cross, 1993), faculty need better information about how timely and varied learning measures can serve as both effective feedback and documentation of student mastery, moving their teaching agenda forward in useful directions.

Papers

Approximately two-thirds of faculty required a paper or writing assignment in at least one of their courses. Papers were, however, almost twice as likely to be assigned in upper rather than lower level classes. A majority of faculty (66%) reported giving students a "fair amount" or "great deal" of latitude in choosing a paper topic. To help students formulate their ideas, 88% of faculty invited or required students to discuss their paper before submitting it although few students used this opportunity. There was more interaction with students after a paper had been graded, with 46% of faculty rating such discussions as occurring "sometimes" and 29% "frequently" or "very frequently". As with testing, students' failure to perform at a satisfactory level was the primary reason to meet about a paper. Faculty also discussed good papers with students to encourage them to develop their ideas or to consider the discipline as a major. Plagiarism was another, though less frequent, concern. According to faculty, student papers routinely recounted facts or offered unsupported opinion. Grading was described as time-consuming because students often lacked basic summary and grammar skills. The following comment was fairly typical: "I still write extensive comments. I write at most four or five sentences of summary comments plus extensive comments in the text on grammar, vocabulary, or factual problems. My wife thinks I'm crazy in the amount of time I spend grading papers; I think I'm crazy too."[1]

Students with Needs for Additional Academic Support

In the context of assessing student learning we wondered, if and how faculty identify students who need more help than is provided through the normal course, and what faculty do to support these students. Through tests and papers over 80% of faculty became aware that certain students were having particular difficulty with a class. However, exams and writing assignments often occurred after a substantial portion of the semester had elapsed. Thirty-one percent of faculty reported that conversations with students outside class revealed student learning problems. More indirect indicators such as absence from class and behavior in class were cited by even fewer faculty (8% and 18% respectively). Class size undoubtedly affects faculty's ability to monitor such indicators. Approximately three-fourths of faculty said that they do initiate contact with students identified as having significant academic problems. When asked how many students they have done this with in the past two years, 52% gave a range of one to three students, 34% a range of four to ten students.

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[1] Freshman writing tests administered on the same campus demonstrated significant deficiencies in students' ability to summarize and analyze relatively simple text materials. Sentence-level skilld (grammar and construction) appeared stronger.

A majority of faculty arranged an out-of-class conversation with students to discuss their problems but by and large tended to recommend them to the student academic center (47%) (a campus service offering workshops to help traditional and non-traditional students acquire college-level study skills), rather than attempt to work with them directly (27%) or have an associate instructor (graduate teaching assistant) work with them (14%). Interestingly, about 18% of faculty also advised students to drop the course. Faculty's reticence to become more directly involved helping such students stems from their concern that some students' basic abilities — their academic preparation and their motivation — are just not adequate for college level work, and the remediation required is beyond the resources and expertise of individual faculty and perhaps even the university.

Perceptions of Undergraduate Students

Changing demographics and characteristics of students can also pose challenges to even the most skilled instructors. To be effective teachers, faculty must be able to build links between the knowledge they wish to impart to students and that which students already possess. Acquiring this depth of knowledge about students requires an ongoing assessment of their strengths and weaknesses, levels of preparation, intelligence, motivation, and learning styles.

Faculty rated the academic preparation of students in their introductory courses as, on average, below moderate or moderate. None rated students as "very well prepared" and only 6% rated them as "well prepared." There was no universal agreement on the shortcomings that students demonstrate, but responses suggested a range of problems: from a lack of general background knowledge to deficiencies in basic math and English competencies and higher-order thinking skills. One faculty commented, "...[There are] a lot of basic facts they don't have about the world, politics, our own nature—ones I would assume they would have—the Bill of Rights, the capitals of countries, whether countries are developing or industrial and so forth...". And another said, "They have a hard time writing sentences. They are bright kids but have a poor literacy rate...can't use words correctly, use cliches constantly. They come from a TV culture that doesn't encourage reading." A number of faculty argued that students read and think only at a surface level: "It would never dawn on them to read a paragraph twice." As a consequence, students leave too little time to complete course assignments, perform poorly, and wonder why "because I did the work." We cannot tell from the present study whether faculty's assessment of undergraduates' background and skills is accurate or whether the level of preparation has changed over time.[2] It appears, however, that at the very least, there is a cultural and intellectual divide between faculty and incoming students which many faculty recognize and attempt to address in their teaching.

Further, despite faculty's obvious dismay over academic preparation for college-level work, it was not a lack of skills that faculty found most difficult in dealing with their undergraduate students, but students' lack of engagement in their own education. Again, to quote a faculty member, "[What is difficult?] Students' lack of curiosity, passion, the desire to learn versus ambition of getting through the system. The motivation, desire to excel, to do well, think well, write well. [I] don't complain about their skills...they can acquire skills. What is most challenging for me is their lack of a desire to learn." And another: "I am amazed in terms of what students are happy with. Fifty percent getting a C or lower grades. Often happy with that. Something is wrong about their own expectations of their performance." Lack of student motivation is not a trivial concern for educators as the positive links between motivation and learning are well-known (McKeachie et al., 1986). Unfortunately, there are no sure-fire methods of motivating students to become involved in their own learning. Grading was the second greatest source of difficulty for faculty, both in terms of the assignment of grades and in terms of dealing with students who wished to contest grades.

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[2] These opinions appear to be widespread among faculty. The 1989 Carnegie report on undergraduate teaching revealed that faculty nationwide perceive incoming students as unprepared for college-level work.

Evaluating and Improving Teaching Performance

Formidable barriers stand in the way of improving college teaching, particularly in a research university where the values, norms, and reward structures are traditionally directed to research productivity. Certain faculty attitudes and assumptions can inhibit instructional improvement as well. For instance, the perception that content competence is not only a necessary but a sufficient condition for teaching effectiveness is not uncommon. Furthermore, teaching is often regarded as a private affair that goes on between professor and student within the confines of a classroom closed to outsiders, literally shutting out the likelihood of instructional feedback or counsel from external sources. The ambiguity that still surrounds the teaching/learning process and the mechanics of how it actually takes place can also make it difficult to communicate what good teaching is. Teaching methods can have differential results depending upon the types of students, the course content, and the overall climate of the institution (McKeachie, 1993). Teaching the same course across a number of years can be emotionally and psychologically draining, but for some, the boredom that ensues may be more tolerable than the effort required to reverse the trend. Shortages of financial support for instructional aids can also diminish enthusiasm for teaching innovations or improvements (Weimer, 1990).

Effective feedback loops between students and faculty are essential for monitoring and improving teaching performance, but they are also an important element of intrinsic satisfaction with teaching (Bess, 1977). People who are most effective at obtaining intrinsic rewards for their efforts strive to set goals where challenges run just ahead of skill levels and "where feedback can be monitored to easily modify goals," among other characteristics (Csikszentmihaly cited in Froh, Menges, & Walker, 1993, pp. 87-88). Learning to read the cues in the classroom environment and adjust accordingly is both a useful skill for improving undergraduate teaching and a key to intrinsic satisfaction.

We asked faculty to think about the cues they use to monitor the effectiveness of instruction in the day-to-day classroom environment; what student behaviors are symptomatic of poor instruction; and how they address such problems in their teaching. Not surprisingly, faculty based their assessments primarily on students' attentiveness (facial expressions, note-taking, focus on teacher, absence of side conversations) and on the questions students generate and those they are able to answer. Less traditional methods of calibrating teaching effectiveness (minute papers, directly querying students about understanding, and third party observations by teaching assistants or other faculty) were rarely used.

Faculty were also asked if they sometimes felt that a class just goes "wrong." About half of faculty respondents indicated that unsuccessful teaching was characterized by students' intellectual (and social) withdrawal from the professor and the class materials (difficulties were far less likely to manifest themselves in the form of questions or even disruptive behavior). This sort of student response puts an additional onus on the faculty to continually probe and become aware of students' levels of comprehension. When a class did "go wrong," a majority (58%) of faculty back-tracked or repeated material again. About a third of faculty also reported asking students to articulate their difficulty, and about a quarter reported changing their style of teaching (e.g., from a discussion format to more of a lecture format, or vice versa).

On a one to nine scale, with one being excellent and nine being poor, faculty reported a mean rating on student course evaluations of

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[3] Faculty-reported student evaluations of teaching were thus between "very good" and "good." While we have no way of knowing what students' actual evaluations of these particular faculty were, data drawn from campuswide student evaluations suggest positive but somewhat more moderate student assessments of teaching. For example, on a scale of 1 "strongly agree" to 5 "strongly disagree," students' mean rating of the following items were: course well organized—2.99, instructor well-prepared for class—3.26, instructor explains clearly—2.96, instructor able to make the subject interesting—2.92; and instructor stimulates my thinking—2.92. Overall, the mean rating of the item "I learned a lot in this course" was 2.96. Though not as positive as faculty's own reports, student evaluations were, on average, favorable and indicated real strengths in faculty teaching.

2.40 (±1.36, N=105).[3] When asked how useful student evaluations are in improving specific aspects of a course (e.g., selection of content, assignments and examinations, organization, teaching methods), about half of faculty rated student feedback as useful to very useful. In addition, student evaluations constituted the primary, if not exclusive, basis for formal departmental review of faculty teaching. Thus, while faculty may express some doubts about formal student assessments of their teaching, such assessments carry substantial weight with individual faculty and with the department and larger institution. In this context, two factors may partially explain faculty's troubled relationship with student evaluations: (1) student evaluations play an extremely large (and often exclusive) role in determining rewards for teaching performance; and (2) the summary items, which are the most reliable and central of indicators on formal student evaluations, may be difficult to translate into the more specific dimensions of curricular design and instructional technique.

About 50% of faculty indicated that they received some kind of feedback about their teaching from other faculty, and about 53% indicated they received feedback on their teaching from their department chair. When given, evaluative feedback was infrequent and irregular or tied to annual merit raises, promotion, and tenure. Moreover, in their review, most chairpersons relied on student evaluations. About a third of the chairs also took syllabi, tests, and so forth, into account in evaluating instruction. Less than one-fifth of chairs used classroom observations (done by themselves or other faculty) in assessing faculty teaching. Faculty rated their department colleagues' mean assessment of their teaching as about 2.42 (±1.25, N = 96) on a one to nine scale, with one being "excellent."

Faculty were probed about the kinds of information and resources they use to improve their teaching. Most of the improvements faculty made to their courses were based on changes in the discipline (e.g., newly published articles, texts, etc.), student evaluations, and discussion with other faculty. Less than a quarter of faculty read articles or books on teaching, less than a fifth attended workshops or seminars on teaching, and less than 10% asked fellow faculty to observe their teaching. Evidence thus suggests that while faculty are vigilant in keeping the subject matter of their courses current, they are far less systematic in pursuing pedagogical enhancements and innovations and, in particular, disinclined to seek peer review of their teaching.

In summary, findings reflect a more general trend in academe to structure teaching and research dimensions of the career in very different ways. In an article on how faculty change and improve their teaching, one researcher notes:

> Clearly, the academic culture does not view teaching as an endeavor to be examined, discussed, and revised. It is not in the same category as scholarly writing and research. Professors have a community of scholars with whom they share their ideas about research. However, a community of teachers rarely develops; teaching remains a private affair between professor and students. It is in this isolation that individual professors must initiate and sustain change. (Stevens, 1988, p. 64)

In the research arena faculty often exchange research manuscripts and grant applications with other faculty before submission. After submission there is substantial peer review by faculty from other institutions. While there is no clear analogue for publications in the teaching domain, course syllabi seemed a reasonable proxy to inquire about. More than a quarter of the faculty had not seen any one else's syllabi in the last two years. Faculty were no more likely to share one of their syllabi with other faculty. Twenty-three percent had not given theirs to another faculty, and 28% had given a syllabus to one or two colleagues only.

Teaching Satisfaction

There is no doubt that undergraduate teaching is a challenging and time-consuming task that must compete with a multitude of other legitimate claims on faculty's limited resources of time and energy. We wondered if the press from the challenges of the task itself, the frustrations of imperfect feedback loops, or the stress imposed by competing roles and responsibilities might diminish faculty interest in and satisfaction with their role as undergraduate teachers.

Thirty-seven percent of faculty reported their professional interest in teaching and research as equal and complementary, 21% described themselves as inclining towards teaching and 40% as inclining towards research. National data offer a similar profile of the professional interests of faculty at other Research 1 institutions: 66% of faculty indicated their interests "lean to" or are "primarily in" research and 35% indicated their interests "lean to" or are "primarily in" teaching (Carnegie Foundation, 1989).

Findings indicated that faculty were very satisfied with what they had been able to accomplish in their teaching *according to their own standards and objectives*. On a scale of 1 ("not at all satisfied") to 5 ("extremely satisfied") faculty, on average, rated themselves as 3.67 (±.91). Faculty were asked to assess their teaching from three different perspectives: personal enjoyment, student interest, and student performance. All faculty assessments, including their own personal enjoyment, were well above moderate levels. In general, faculty derived the greatest satisfaction from seeing the intellectual progress their students make—when the "lightbulb goes on" and students begin to understand a concept or problem or become actively engaged in thinking about and discussing some aspect of the course. One faculty member expressed the satisfaction of teaching this way: "[It's] the glitter in their eyes when they 'get it'... seeing them learn." Another spoke of teaching satisfaction as a vicarious emotion: "[I'm satisfied] if students are happy with what they are doing, if they're becoming enthused about it—it's a second-hand joy." Preparing for classroom instruction energized and satisfied another: "I enjoy being 'reactivated' by having to prepare for class. Teaching is a mechanism to get me to learn—it's self-rewarding."

Conclusions and Recommendations

The findings of the current study underscore faculty commitment to undergraduate teaching and illustrate faculty's profound concern with students' intellectual development. Results belie much of the current rhetoric about faculty indifference toward teaching, indicating both substantial interest and investment of time. Results also suggest, however, how complex college teaching has become; how varied the students are in background, preparation, and motivation; how difficult it is to create an active, engaging learning environment in large lecture courses; and how faculty must juggle teaching responsibilities amidst myriad other claims on their time. Faculty are less disinterested in undergraduate teaching, than at times perplexed by it—perplexed by students' lack of interest in a subject matter they find compelling, by new technologies and techniques that, while ultimately helpful, take time and resources to master, and by escalating external demands to teach more and teach better, without a clear understanding of what this means or how it is to be accomplished. If faculty commitment to teaching were less steadfast, the quality of education would have declined precipitously before this point.

The study also reveals several areas where instruction can be enriched and improved:

1. Faculty may want to make earlier, more active, and more explicit efforts to socialize students into the culture of learning at the university by explicitly articulating the time demands and the study skills essential to successful academic performance.

2. As part of the effort to provide students with clear signals about expectations and performance, earlier, more frequent feedback for students is important. In many cases, faculty cannot take on the grading of another test or paper. It may be possible, however, to use technology (e.g., automatically graded and recorded computer exercises), group projects, or short in-class writing assignments (graded satisfactory/not satisfactory) as a means of offering feedback to students about their understanding of course materials and to help calibrate how effectively instruction is proceeding.

3. Most colleges and universities are rich in extracurricular resources—cultural events, lectures by distinguished faculty and artists, library collections, and increasingly powerful and accessible computer systems. One or more of these resources should be integrated into the fabric of virtually all our courses. Students' learning will be reinforced through these experiences and education will be seen as something that happens outside as well as within the classroom.

4. Faculty may want to consider using presentation media and instructional approaches that are more varied and, in particular, accommodate current students' orientation to visual information and experiential learning.

5. Faculty rely heavily on nonverbal cues to determine students' comprehension of lecture or discussion. More direct modes of assessment — for example, inquiring directly whether students comprehend,

or requiring students to rephrase major points or to formulate questions one would want to ask about major points — may productively augment faculty's reading of students' understanding. In addition to feedback about students' mastery of materials, such strategies would help faculty model and students practice some of the study and thinking skills they should employ when completing their out-of-class reading and assignments.

6. In-class tests and exams are the primary indicators of students' performance. Our data suggest that use of a greater number and variety of measures would elicit a wider range of study strategies and offer a more complete picture of students' capabilities. Again, faculty may simply not be able to expand the base of graded activities without additional support. However, some creative approaches may help mitigate if not eliminate this problem.

7. Faculty expressed some ambivalence about student evaluations, despite their widespread use. Perhaps one problem is that in the absence of other objective indicators, student evaluations have taken on disproportionate weight in formal reviews of teaching. Student evaluations might prove more useful to faculty and reviewers when combined with other types of evaluation (peer, self) and a clearer sense of what each of these different types of information contributes to assessment of faculty's instructional performance. Student evaluations also tend to be most accurate at a global level, suggesting that quantitative data derived from standardized, machine-scorable evaluations may be productively supplemented with qualitative data from focus groups, individual student interviews, or more detailed questionnaires carried out with small samples of students.

8. Although not the focus of the current investigation, it again became clear that schools and departments must institute faculty reward systems that provide recognition for teaching as well as research.

Central to any effort to improve undergraduate instruction is the creation of an environment of respect, openness, and mutuality between faculty and student. Perhaps one of the greatest challenges both faculty and students face is to avoid the anonymity that often attends large classes and heavy loads. In working with faculty, faculty developers can help provide information about a variety of pedagogical techniques (multimedia, collaborative learning groups, spontaneous writing assignments) that can promote a more active and interactive teaching-learning environment. Investing time and energy developing a course places demands and responsibilities upon teacher and learner but also energizes the learning process and those involved in it; lack of change and commitment breeds passivity and disabling cynicism. Different teaching practices and philosophies enrich the learning process and offer multiple routes to educational attainment. The task ahead is to adequately support and reward good teaching in its various forms and encourage the instructional exploration which lays the groundwork for excellence in undergraduate education.

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Creating Teaching and Learning Partnerships with Students: Helping Faculty Listen to Student Voices

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Teaching effectively involves developing a partnership with our students based on mutual respect and trust. The first part of this paper provides a way in which we can initiate or further develop this partnership by inviting our students to tell us about themselves. Readers are shown how to become more aware of the diverse ways in which students learn and, hence, how to expand both teaching methods and content. The second part of the paper presents suggestions for facilitating a faculty development workshop on this topic. It shows how—by engaging in discussion with other faculty about our students' concerns—we can learn from each other and improve our teaching in ways that are stimulating and empowering for all involved and that take into account the changing needs of students, teachers, and the larger society.

Institutions of higher learning are enmeshed with numerous traditions, especially when it comes to the rituals that take place within the classroom. Students come to the hallowed halls to listen to learned professors; learned professors come to stand before the students and share their wisdom. Usually teaching takes the form of the lecturer standing behind a lectern, speaking from carefully prepared notes.

Students listen and write as fast as they can, trying to capture as accurately as possible everything they hear. Later they study these notes carefully, attempting to memorize them so they can recognize them in a multiple choice selection or reproduce them as exactly as possible on the exam. When they do so, they feel they have learned well, and professors feel they have taught well. And so tradition goes on as it is supposed to. But *is* this as it *should* be?

In this paper, I will show how teachers can use student feedback as a powerful starting point for making changes in teaching, especially ones that take into account the diverse needs of our society. The first section of the paper examines the results of a three-year study of students' responses to the question "What are your pet peeves about college instructors?" and shows how to make changes in teaching based on student concerns, so that student needs can be better met. The second section describes how this study can be used in a faculty development workshop to guide college instructors in listening to the voices of their own students and, hence, in designing their courses and teaching to meet the needs of these students.

Background

My questions about U.S. higher education have been fueled by the writings of a number of educators who also have challenged the assumptions and practices inherent in the U.S. education system. Paulo Freire (1970) has been a critic of the way in which education has treated students as if they were empty slots waiting to be filled. He refers to this practice as "banking education" and argues that it disempowers people rather than teaching them to think. Dewey (1938) long ago argued that students learn best through active experiences. Glasser (1986) has stressed the need we all have, among other things, for some power or control over our lives. It is particularly important for teachers to acknowledge this need in order to build student ownership into their learning. Purkey and Novak (1984) extend this same concept, underscoring the importance of teachers creating learning environments that are inviting to all students so students will be willing and able to learn and ready to accept responsibility for their own learning. The notion of teaching to *all* students, not just to the top or even the majority, has received increasing emphasis as institutions of higher learning have shifted their thinking to be more inclusive of diversity.

As colleges and universities move into the twenty-first century, they are going beyond paying lip service to diversity issues and making diversity a high priority. If we truly value diversity and believe in the strength that comes from including diversity in our institutions and in our classes (both through what we teach and how we teach), then we must take the time to listen to the voices of the students who represent that diversity. The Old Golden Rule was "Do unto others as you would have them do unto you." This sounds noble, but the problem — or inherent value in this — is it implies that we know what is best for others. The conventional wisdom is if it was good enough for us, then it also must be good enough for our students. Furthermore, we believe it must be what they want us to do to them. This is at best misguided and at worst ethnocentric and paternalistic, ignoring the diversity that our students represent. If we are to embrace the value of diversity, we need to adopt the New Golden Rule of "Do unto others as they would have you do unto them." In order for us to apply this new rule, we need to find out what it is that our students want us to do and what they need in their particular circumstances. As an extension of this, we also need to find out what they do *not* want or need.

Listening to what students say about college instructors

Like most teachers, I have always made a point of having my students evaluate my course and my teaching at the end of each term. The problem has been that the students who give me the feedback are not around to benefit from the changes I make in response to their suggestions. Additionally, this practice has led me to assume that the changes desired by students from one class are necessarily what the next group of students wants. Yet, as all of us know who are involved in the business of teaching, each class has its own class personality, and each class is made up of unique individuals with different needs. Thus, what one class wants may not be what another wants. Recognizing this, I began using midpoint, formative course evaluations.

While this did help me make adjustments to students' needs for the second part of the course, still I was not making the best use of the first half. Thus, in addition to the midpoint and end-of-course evaluations, I moved to a new approach in which I asked the students at the *start* of the class, before I taught them, to tell me about themselves and how they would like to be taught and treated.

Inviting students to tell me about themselves (see Appendix) has helped me understand them as individuals so I can treat them as they would like to be treated. On the first day of each quarter, students in all my classes are given a personal data sheet to complete right at the start of class, before I begin teaching. All I say to the students before they complete this sheet is that I would appreciate them responding to my questions so I can get to know them. The students' comments help me be more sensitive to their needs and avoid doing unnecessary and often unintentional things that bother them. In doing so, this helps me improve my teaching. I have found, too, that just *asking* these questions has helped create an inviting classroom environment and has encouraged students to be my partners in teaching and learning in an atmosphere of mutual respect. This sets the tone for the rest of the course. Over time, in analyzing the students' feedback, I noticed consistent patterns emerging in the responses to the question "What are your pet peeves about college instructors?" This led me to conduct a more formal analysis of their peeves, synthesizing the results to develop an overall picture of the responses. The results of this analysis are presented here.

For this study I used the surveys obtained from students in a secondary education methods course over a three-year period. The class is one of the first courses teacher education students take upon admission to the teacher education program. Students are either juniors, seniors, or postbaccalaureate students returning to college to receive their teaching licenses. The total number of students surveyed was 193 (86 men, 107 women) over a total of nine classes, with an average class size of 21.4 students. Students in this class have taken most of their liberal education and other lower division courses, and may have begun to take some upper division courses. The courses they have taken are primarily in the colleges of Liberal Arts, Education and Human Service Professions, Science and Engineering, and the School of Business and Economics at the University of Minnesota, Duluth campus, and at other colleges and universities from which some students have transferred. The courses that students have taken up to this point vary because students come from a range of fields, namely: sciences, math, social sciences, art, music, English, foreign language, health, physical education, and industrial education. Thus, their comments about college instructors are based upon experiences in a wide range of classes across their present and previous campuses.

Results

All the responses students gave to the question "What are your pet peeves about college instructors?" were written out verbatim. These were then organized into categories according to the content of the statement. For example, any comments specifically referring to instructors' poor teaching were placed into a category called "Poor organization/planning/teaching"; comments about teachers who lecture too much or are boring fell under "Lecture too much/boring." All comments having anything directly to do with teaching were then put into one large section on teaching; the next section included all comments on respect; the final section shows comments too disparate to be grouped under a single heading. The total number of comments in each category and section was then counted and is shown in Table 1. It should be noted that there are more responses than students, as some students listed more than one peeve. Thus, for example, where the table shows 25.4 percent of students giving a response about poor organization/ planning/ teaching, this means 25.4% of 193 students, or 49 students made a statement that fell into this category. Slightly more than forty-six percent of students, or 89 students in total, made comments in the broad section of teaching. Some of these same 89 students also made other comments that fell into other categories.

What is most striking about these results is the number of students making comments that fell into the two largest categories: "Teaching Techniques" and "Teachers' Lack of Respect." In the first category, 46% of students identified teachers' poor teaching or inadequate teaching. In this category, 25.4% of students made comments about poor organization and planning of presentations and courses, and poor

TABLE 1
Summary of Student Responses to the question: "What are your pet peeves about college instructors?"

Response categories	*% of students*	*% male*	*% female*
	with this response		
TEACHING			
Poor organization/planning/teaching	25.4	27.9	23.4
Lecture too much/boring	6.7	10.5	3.7
Grading expectations unclear	5.7	8.1	3.7
Lack of interest in subject/teaching	4.7	3.5	5.6
Unfair grading	2.6	3.5	1.9
Don't understand students' learning styles	1.0	1.2	0.9
Total	46.1	54.7	39.2
RESPECT			
Intellectual arrogance/talk down	15.0	18.7	12.2
Not approachable	7.3	6.9	7.5
Don't respect students	6.2	4.7	7.5
Feel need to control/impose views	4.0	6.9	1.9
Intolerant of students' questions	2.1	2.3	1.9
Total	34.6	39.5	31.0
GENERAL			
Insensitive to students' time constraints (life beyond class)	7.3	3.5	10.3
Go over class time	5.7	5.8	5.6
Not in during office hours/hard to get hold of	5.2	4.7	5.6
Don't relate material to real life	2.6	4.7	0.9
Too much busy work	2.6	3.5	1.9
Bias/sexism	2.1	1.2	2.8
No eye contact	2.1	0	3.7
Do as I say, not as I do	1.0	2.3	0
None	4.7	6.9	2.8
Other (no clear category)	11.4	14.0	9.3
Total	44.7	46.6	42.9
Total # of students:	193.0	86.0	107.0
(9 classes over 3 year period)		(45%)	(55%)
Total responses*	242.0	121.0	121.0

Note: There are more responses than students, as some students listed more than one peeve.

teaching in general. Almost half of the students focused on the importance of good teaching and said that it bothers them in particular when we are not organized. Students seemed to affirm what Freire (1970) argued: They do not want information "poured into them." They expect their teachers to be well prepared in their presentation of material and sensitive to the ways students learn. For example, students were peeved by teachers who "...teach the book word for word," "...teach the same way every day," or teachers who "...have forgotten how to teach."

As we recognize the diversity in our institutions, we say that we realize how important it is not just to acknowledge that this diversity exists but to respect it. Analysis of student comments, however, reveals that they do not feel we are doing this. Thirty-four-and-six-tenths percent made comments about teachers' lack of respect for students, intellectual arrogance, lack of approachability, and intolerance of student questions. Interesting to note here was the difference between the responses of males and females. Sixty-nine percent of males made specific reference to teachers needing to control students or impose their views compared with only 1.9% of females. Particularly significant was the fact that, without any prompting or prior discussion of what types of comments they could include in their pet peeves, 15% of students used almost the same words to describe their feelings about professors' intellectual arrogance. Some examples of students' words here were: "I hate it when they think they are much better than the students and talk above the class," "When they like to show they know more than the students, and don't give them the time to have an opinion."

If we believe in empowering students and respecting their diversity, in challenging them to be reflective, critical thinkers, then we need to rethink approaches that put ourselves on pedestals. Respecting diversity should not just be a passive response, but rather an active stand that we take.

Using student comments to make changes in our teaching

After reading students' pet peeves, we can make immediate and specific changes in the content and the ways we teach. These changes enhance the learning experience for us all, students and teachers alike, without compromising academic excellence. I have found the more variety I include in the ways I teach, the higher the quality of work the students produce. They show greater insight not just into the basic course material, but into the perspectives of others as well. Some examples of changes I have made are as follows:

1. Organizing course material in more than one way, based upon my recognition that students learn differently: Some students benefit more from material that is organized in a logical, sequential way, while others prefer a holistic view that gives the big picture up front. Both of these preferences can be accommodated easily by clarifying the format of the syllabus. It can be presented not only in linear form (the standard form of what date, topic, assignments and readings), but also in a web/flow chart form that shows how the parts of the course and subtopics are connected. Additionally, it is valuable to refer back to the chart during the course so students can see how what they have done so far fits into the rest of the course.
2. Clarifying expectations about assignments: Assignment directions need to be written out, not just explained orally, and given at the start of the course so students who like to plan ahead can begin thinking about what they will need to do. What this means for us, as instructors, is that we have to think through very clearly what we expect from our students before we assign the work. It is not enough for us to have the broad expectation that they will understand the material. We need to decide what we want the finished product to look like and how we will grade it. There are different ways of developing these grading criteria. One is to have students cogenerate the criteria with the faculty in advance as he/she explains the assignment. Another is to share examples of past students' work, showing the class how the teacher graded the work. Thus, when we grade, we need to have specific expectations

and criteria that we check rather than collecting assignments, looking at the variance, and only then deciding what is best. When the students do the work, they can use the criteria as a guide, instead of playing "guess what's on the teacher's mind." When the graded work is returned to them, they can compare it with the criteria and expectations that were laid out in advance and see exactly where they made mistakes. This empowers students so they feel they have *earned* the grade, rather than that we *gave* it to them.

3. Teaching in a variety of ways because students learn differently: Instructors need to make every effort to include a variety of learning modes in the course and in each class, every day. This means, for example, balancing linear and holistic organizational styles; teaching to auditory learners by explaining, to visual learners by showing, and to haptic/tactile learners by having them do or apply what they have learned. Some activities should allow students to work alone, and others to encourage collaboration and sharing of ideas (Gardner, 1993; Johnson and Johnson, 1984; Marzano, 1992).
4. Involving students in classes as much as possible: Regardless of how advanced the course material, students bring a variety of experiences and knowledge about any topic that is introduced. By inviting their comments and perspectives, and then by integrating these ideas into the content of the course, we give students ownership in what they learn. By paying attention to information they shared about themselves on their personal data sheets at the start of the course, we can build in examples that relate to their lives.
5. Incorporating sensitivity to students' lives outside of class: A key concern of students, especially women (10.3% of women), was instructors' insensitivity to students' time constraints outside of class. Being sensitive to these time constraints does not have to mean lowering expectations of students. Especially as funding for education is cut and increasing numbers of older than average age students attend colleges and universities, students face greater challenges in trying to balance their school work with outside responsibilities, such as earning money to pay for college and

support their families. There are ways we can hold students to the standards we expect while being flexible about the ways and timelines they follow to achieve these expectations. I have found students *do* want to do the work I expect and *are* willing to put in the time and effort needed, but not necessarily within the framework specified. In order to help students balance the pressures of school with those in their personal lives, it helps to give plenty of advance warning about due dates and assignment guidelines, not just orally, but also in writing. Where possible, students should be allowed to negotiate restructuring of expectations to meet their needs (for example, taking an exam earlier or later because of a sick child). Often students don't need or want to be excused from work. What they do want is a respectful and sympathetic ear and someone who will help them work out how they *can* meet the expectations.

Designing a faculty development workshop on Pet Peeves

The results of this study can be used not just for individuals to read and reflect about on their own, but also as a springboard for discussion among faculty about how they teach and how they have made adjustments over the years to be more inclusive of their students. A powerful way to begin a workshop to get faculty to reflect on their own teaching and be willing to look at ways to make changes, is to have them examine their own experiences as students. Ask small groups of four or five to brainstorm their responses to the question, "What were your pet peeves about your college instructors?" As they do this, they should record their answers on poster paper or newsprint. What emerges in each group as they reminisce and laugh together, regardless of where or when they went to school, are a common bond and a realization of what they share. While these groups are talking, the faculty developer's role is to circulate among the groups, listening for common themes. It is important not to be drawn into any one group. Be willing to answer questions, but don't become part of the conversation.

The next step in facilitating this workshop is to have each group post their list and, as a large group, compare the findings, searching for common themes. As these themes are generated, they are recorded on newsprint or a chalkboard by the faculty developer. The search for themes itself generates a whole new round of discussion and usually leads without any prompting to the next level of the workshop: What do we think *our* students' pet peeves are about *us*? It makes it so much easier to go to this next and harder level of looking at themselves. If the large group does not spontaneously move to discussing what their students think of them, the faculty developer should pose this question to them directly.

At this point, it is useful to hand out the survey results described earlier (see Table 1), give a brief background on how they were obtained or even give out a copy of the first part of this article, and examine systematically the different categories, comparing these with the faculty's own list from their experiences. Here the whole group examines why they, as teachers, inspire these peeves in our students and what we can do to respond. The key to successful reflection is in guiding participants away from being defensive to taking ownership of what they can reasonably change, balancing these with the realities of teaching in a college setting.

The final step in this workshop involves having participants develop a plan for what they will do with what they have learned. Together or individually they can generate questions to include on a personal data sheet to be given to their students. Depending on the group's needs, they may even want to have a follow-up workshop to share their results and design ways of responding to the students' comments.

Conclusion

Teaching effectively involves developing a partnership with our students based on mutual respect and trust. The first part of this paper has provided a way in which we can initiate or further develop this partnership by inviting our students to tell us about themselves. The second part of the paper presented suggestions for facilitating a faculty development workshop on this topic. It shows how, by engaging in discussion with other faculty about our students' concerns, we can learn from each other. The ultimate result from all of this interaction is a more meaningful learning and teaching experience that takes into account the changing needs of students, teachers, and the larger society.

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APPENDIX 1

PERSONAL DATA SHEET

Name: ____

Student #: ____

Phone: ____

Teaching area: _______________________________________

Indicate with an X which of the following courses you have completed.
Indicate with a check those courses you are taking this quarter:

EdSe 3501 ______
EdSe 5100 ______
EdSe 5500 ______
Special Methods class ______

I would appreciate it if you would take a few moments to answer the following questions about yourself. Feel free to include as much or as little as you want. If there are things about you that I have not asked, but which you would like me to know, please include these. My purposes in asking them are to help me get to know you and find out what interests you. This is important because I try to gear my course towards what will be of interest and value to you. Thank you!

1. Briefly tell me why you want to teach.

2. From what types of class activities do you learn most? (What is your preferred learning style?)

3. What are your least favorite types of class activities?

4. What "pet peeves" do you have about college instructors?

5. What would you like to learn in this class? (Be as specific as you can.)

6. Tell me about yourself — for example: your outside interests, hobbies, any strong beliefs that you have that you'd like to share, what your plans are for your future, and anything else that will help me get to know you and make my teaching geared toward your interests. (Use back of this sheet if necessary). THANKS!

College Students' Perceptions of Unfairness in the Classroom

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The importance of creating an atmosphere of fairness in the college classroom is discussed. Using psychological equity theory concepts of interactional and procedural fairness as the basis of study, a survey was conducted with 300 university students who were asked to rate the seriousness of 18 faculty misbehaviors. Misbehaviors related to interactional fairness (showing partiality to some students, using profanity and being angry or mean, embarrassing students in class) and misbehaviors related to procedural fairness (unfair in grading; changing policies during the semester; using unfair tests, trick questions) were considered by students to be much more serious than giving excessive work or giving dull, boring lectures. This paper gives a model for consideration of the relative importance of fairness in the college classroom and offers recommendations for faculty.

Universally, college students put high value on fair treatment in the classroom. College students from cultures as diverse as the United States and Sri Lanka, when asked to describe the traits of "good teachers," employ terms which denote fairness: "democratic," "treated all equal," "favored nobody," and "gave no special preference" (Shaw, Partridge, & Gorrell, 1990). For decades, although other criteria for evaluating effective instruction have changed, fairness has remained a major concern among college students (Odom, 1943). Today, fairness is one of the top ten criteria used by college students to assess good teaching (Meredith, 1983).

There is evidence that negative consequences result when students perceive unfairness or a lack of equity in an educational setting. Lack of achievement by students is related to their negative ratings of fairness in the classroom (Bryson, 1974; Frey, 1976; Marsh & Overall, 1980). When students perceive unfairness, they rate professors lower on other characteristics (Feldman, 1976), and when describing their "worst" teacher, students almost always use statements which indicate unfairness. Low perceived equity is even related to college student participation in vandalism on campus (DeMore, Fisher, & Baron, 1988).

If the perception of unfairness is correlated with a wide range of negative outcomes, then faculty members and administrators should be aware of behaviors and practices which foster a sense of unfairness among students. If college students respond negatively to certain classroom experiences or practices, then the result often may be lower achievement or decreased satisfaction with the university. What types of classroom experiences and practices create negative responses in students? Some of these questions can be answered through equity research.

Theoretical Framework

Equity theory, proposed by J. Stacy Adams in 1965, established fairness as an area of study within the field of social psychology. Simply stated, Adams' theory proposes that people are motivated to establish equity in their lives so that outcomes are proportionate to inputs. People do this by comparing their individual inputs and outcomes in any given situation with the inputs and outcomes of others in similar situations. One basic premise of Adam's (1965) equity theory is the assumption that people are motivated to establish reciprocity according to each individual's *perception* of what is fair. These expectations for reciprocity and fairness are learned through socialization and vary according to culture, gender, age, and other sociocultural variables (Benton, 1971; Boldizar, Perry, & Perry, 1988; Murphy-Berman, Berman, Singh, Pachauri, & Kumar, 1984).

As might be expected, most of the early research applying equity and fairness theory was conducted in business and industry. Most people are concerned with equity and fairness on the job; people expect fair pay from their employers and are motivated to reestablish fairness when they perceive that it does not exist. Although not as widely studied, the desire for fairness in the classroom may be as prevalent as concerns for equity in employment. A common complaint heard from students—from kindergarten to graduate school—is that a teacher is "unfair." We might assume that these students, when they perceive unfairness, are also motivated to reestablish fairness.

Equity, Equality, Need

The need for equity—that is, achieving outcomes which are comparable to inputs—is not the only criterion for measuring fairness. Adams' early equity theory has been expanded to include other concepts which are important to people's ideas of fairness (Deutsch, 1975; Leventhal, 1980). Deutsch (1975) found that outcomes which emphasizes equity (contributions) is only one of three means used to determine just distributions. Depending upon the circumstances, people might also use equality or need as the dominant criterion for assessing outcomes. Whereas rules of equity consider input, rules of equality dictate that everyone receive an equal share, regardless of input; and rules of need give the most to those who are most deprived. When the major concern is for economic productivity, as in factory production line work, then equity will tend to be the dominant justice rule used. If one is concerned with maintaining and fostering social relations, then equality will be the primary rule. For instance, parents will usually spend equal amounts of money for each child's birthday, regardless of the contribution from each child. If the major concern is for personal development, as determined by the social services system of our country, then need will be the major criterion for distribution.

How much importance should a professor place on a student's contribution to the class when assigning grades? Two experiments conducted by the author (Rodabaugh & Kravitz, 1994) assessed participant ratings of this practice. One experiment compared professors who graded equitably with those who graded equally and with those who graded according to need. Participants read descriptions of a professor who assigned grades for a group project according to one of three methods: equitably, according to each student's individual contribution; equally among members of the group, ignoring individual contribution to the group; or according to the needs of individual students, ignoring the contribution of the student. The results showed that the professor who assigned grades equitably (according to the individual contribution of each student) was rated significantly higher on fairness, caring shown to students, and likelihood of being chosen for a class than were professors who graded according to need. Professors who graded according to need were in turn rated significantly higher than those who assigned grades equally. These results were significant at the .001 level. In the second experiment, participants read descriptions of a student who contributed either highly or minimally to a class during the semester, but finally scored only one percentage point away from a needed grade at the end of the semester. The point was needed either to keep financial aid, to stay on the basketball team, or to graduate. The professor decided to give the needed point in all cases. The data on all five dependent variables (fairness, caring toward students, respect, liking, and likelihood of being chosen for a class) indicate strong student support for faculty who consider a student's contribution when assigning grades, regardless of the reason for the need.

Outcome vs. Procedural Fairness

Even though people are concerned with just distributions, Thibaut and Walker (1978) proposed that people are also greatly concerned with the procedures used to determine those distributions. People will usually accept the outcome of a decision if they feel that the procedures used to determine the outcome are fair. Part of this "fair process effect" is the opportunity to vocally express one's feelings and thoughts about the procedures used to determine the outcome (Folger, Rosenfield, Grove, & Cochran, 1979). This opportunity, labeled "voice," has been shown to be a valid contributor to people's perceptions of fairness. If individuals are given the opportunity to express themselves during the procedures which determine outcomes, or to express their feelings about the outcomes, then they are more satisfied with the outcomes even when they know they cannot change the results.

Procedural fairness includes a number of components which might be considered necessary in order to assure fair processes (Leventhal, 1980), including agent selection, ground rules, information gathering, decision structure, appeals, safeguards, and change mechanisms. People expect the rules and procedures to have some degree of consistency, accuracy, and ethicality; to be free of bias; to be representative of the population; and to have built-in measures for correcting mistakes (Leventhal, 1976, 1980).

Three experiments (Rodabaugh & Kravitz, in press) were conducted to assess college student perceptions of professors who use either fair or unfair procedures. The first study dealt with a professor's procedures related to testing, the second dealt with a professor's procedures related to classroom rules and policies, and the third compared a professor who was unfair to those who displayed other negative characteristics.

In the first experiment, a professor was either fair (returned tests to students, discussed the tests, and let students ask questions about the tests) or unfair (simply posted grades for tests) in the procedures followed when returning tests to students. The professor's grades in the class were higher than average, average, or lower than average. Ratings of the professor not only on "fairness," but also on the other four dependent variables (caring toward students, respect, liking, and likelihood of being chosen for a class), were strongly affected by the professor's fairness. Even when the professor's grades were lower than average, the ratings of the professor's fairness were significantly higher (.001 level) than the ratings of a professor who showed unfairness, even if the grades for the unfair professor were higher than average.

The second experiment described a professor who was either very strict (fair) or negligent (unfair) in setting classroom policies and procedures and who awarded student grades which were either higher or lower than average. In this experiment, students rated a professor who was fair much more highly than one who was unfair on all five dependent variables. The same results were found as those described above: a professor using fair procedures and awarding low grades was rated significantly higher than a professor using unfair procedures and awarding high grades (.001 level).

In the third experiment, participants read one of four descriptions of a professor who exhibited traits which were positive on three trait clusters and negative on one trait cluster. The four negative clusters centered around being unfair in grading, being a boring lecturer, giving excessive work and hard tests, or being cold and uncaring toward students. Participants were significantly more likely to reject the unfair professor than any of the other three. But professors displaying the other three negative characteristics did not differ significantly on likelihood of being chosen for a class. Professors who were described as "unfair" were rated significantly lower than the other three professors on "respect for the professor," "liking the professor," and "fairness of the professor." Only on "caring for students" was the rating for the professor (described as unfair) higher than another professor, and then only higher than the professor described as "uncaring"—an obvious choice.

Interactional Fairness

In addition to distributive and procedural aspects of justice, interactional justice is an important, yet often ignored, aspect of fairness research (Bies and Moag, 1986). One of the basic principals which guides human relations is the expectation of fairness in our daily interactions with others (Blai, 1988). Bies and Moag (1986) propose that people will judge the fairness of interactions based on the degree to which the interaction is seen to involve truthfulness, respect, propriety, and justification.

Other concepts of interactional justice are also important in the college classroom. Educators often stress the importance of treating students with respect as persons (Joh, 1975; Mour, 1977), but heretofore knowledge has been limited concerning student perceptions of fair practices between students and faculty members. We do know that students list "sarcasm and putdowns" more frequently than any other misbehavior they dislike in instructors (Kearney, Plax, Hays, & Ivey, 1991).

Methodology

This study used a descriptive questionnaire developed by the researcher to assess student perceptions of fairness. Students rated the seriousness of various faculty misbehaviors. Information was collected on student ratings of their overall happiness with college, perceptions of faculty fairness, descriptions of cheating behaviors, and acts of vandalism. Demographic information collected included year in college, ethnicity, age, gender, major, number of credit hours, average number of cuts per course, and grade point average.

Participants in this study were students enrolled in psychology and education courses. Table 1 shows the numbers of participants by ethnicity, gender and age. Majors listed included all schools on campus except for Hospitality Management. However, approximately one-third of the participants were psychology majors and one-third were education majors. The remaining participants were fairly evenly distributed among the various schools on campus.

The Statistical Package for the Social Sciences (SPSS) was employed to analyze the data, using ANOVAs, frequency, and correlational methods.

Results

Fairness Correlates

Demographic information collected included ethnicity, gender, age, year in college, major, grade point average, credit hours, and average number of classes cut during a semester. In addition, participants were asked to supply the following information on cheating and vandalism: Had they committed any behavior which might be termed as cheating; If yes, what was the behavior; Had they had ever been accused of cheating in a college environment; If yes, was the accusation justified; What was the charge; and Had they ever committed an act of vandalism on a college campus or while on a college related trip. Finally, participants rated their happiness with their college experiences, happiness with their present university, and how fair their college professors had been.

TABLE 1
Number of Participants by Gender, Ethnicity and Age

	Age							
Male	17-22	23-27	28-34	35-42	43-49	50>	Total	
Hispanic	13	7	3	1	2	0	26	
White	17	7	3	1	0	0	28	
Black	4	1	1	1	0	0	7	
Asian	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	
Other	1	2	0	0	0	0	3	
Subtotal	35	17	7	3	2	0	64	
Female	17-22	23-27	28-34	35-42	43-49	50>		Total Ethnic
Hispanic	59	26	9	4	1	0	99	134
White	34	18	8	6	4	3	73	111
Black	10	3	2	1	1	0	17	28
Asian	3	1	0	1	0	0	5	6
Other	2	1	2	0	0	0	5	9
Subtotal	108	49	21	12	6	3	199	
Missing	6	2						12
Total	149	68	28	15	8	3	263	300

Two of these variables, accusations of cheating and vandalism, were eliminated due to the small number of respondents. Only five participants reported ever having been accused of cheating, and only one student admitted committing an act of vandalism in college. A positive correlation was found between ratings of happiness with overall college experiences, happiness with present college experiences and perceptions regarding the fairness of professors. No significant correlation was found between fairness of professors and cheating behavior or grade point average. In comparison to younger students, older students reported professors as more fair, cut classes less, took fewer hours, were less likely to report cheating, were happier with their overall college experiences, and had higher GPAs. Students who cut more classes had lower GPAs and were more likely to cheat.

Procedural, Outcome, and Interactional Fairness

In order to assess the relative importance of procedural, outcome, and interactional fairness to other teacher behaviors such as presenting a great lecture or giving an excessive amount of work, participants were asked to rate (on a scale of 1 to 9) the seriousness of eighteen faculty misbehaviors. Table 2 shows the mean ratings given by participants of the seriousness of misbehaviors committed by faculty. As can be seen, behaviors which violate interactional and procedural

TABLE 2
Participants Ratings of the Seriousness of Faculty Misbehaviors

(Mean)	*Faculty Misbehavior*
1. (8.45)	Shows partiality to some students due to gender, age, race, etc.
2. (8.24)	Does not know subject matter; gives wrong information.
3. (8.16)	Unfair in grading; gives grades arbitrarily; or changes policy during the semester.
4. (8.12)	Uses profanity; yells and screams; or is otherwise angry or mean.
5. (7.99)	Uses unfair tests; asks trick questions; or gives exams which are unrelated to lectures.
6. (7.99)	Embarrasses students in class; uses sarcasm and putdowns.
7. (7.59)	Gives confusing, unclear lectures; contradicts him/herself; is vague.
8. (7.54)	Frequently late to class or doesn't show up at all.
9. (7.09)	Has an uncaring attitude toward students; implies learning is the responsibility of the student, not the instructor.
10. (7.04)	Not prepared for class; thumbs through material during class to decide what to discuss.
11. (6.89)	Unresponsive to students' questions in class.
12. (6.59)	Keeps students overtime or starts class early before all students arrive.
13. (6.54)	Does not keep office hours or is otherwise generally not available to students.
14. (6.48)	Strays from the subject matter; uses class as a forum for personal opinions.
15. (6.29)	Gives assignments which are simply busy work or have no real purpose.
16. (6.00)	Gives an excessive amount of work.
17. (5.78)	Gives very dull, boring lectures.
18. (5.27)	Is much too easy; no challenge; all students can make A's.

fairness expectations are rated as much more serious than being a dull, boring lecturer or giving an excessive amount of work.

Using an ANOVA, subject ratings of the seriousness of faculty misbehaviors were compared with the participants' major as the independent variable. The responses varied by major for only two faculty behaviors: "gives very dull boring lectures" and "keeps students overtime or starts class early before all students arrive." In both instances, education majors rated both behaviors significantly more serious than did psychology majors and, for the first behavior, also significantly more serious than majors in other fields. In neither case do psychology student ratings differ significantly from ratings given by students in "other" fields.

Pearson Correlation Coefficients were calculated using participant ratings of the seriousness of faculty misbehaviors and the following participant variables: age, gender, ethnicity (Hispanic and white-non-Hispanic only), year in college, grade point average, number of hours being taken, average number of cuts during a semester, cheating behavior, happiness with overall college experiences, happiness with present college, and fairness of professors. Multiple regression analyses were also calculated using these variables with the ratings of seriousness as the dependent variables. The most significant factors in participant ratings of the seriousness of faculty misbehaviors were the participants' gender and age. Females rated faculty misbehaviors as more serious than did males, especially those behaviors which relate to classroom behaviors and interactional fairness. Older students also rated faculty misbehaviors as more serious. Students who cut more classes rated faculty misbehaviors as less serious than did students who cut fewer classes.

Happiness with overall college experiences and happiness with the present college were correlated with four faculty behaviors. Multiple regression equations showed that students who were less happy with their overall college experiences rated "Unfair grading" and "Unfair tests" as more serious than did students who were happier with their college experiences. Students who were less happy with their present college saw "Giving an excessive amount of work" and "Giving busy work" as more serious than did students who were happier.

Grade point average, cheating, and year in school were each important variables in one faculty behavior. Students with higher grade point averages saw "Unfair in grading" as more serious than those with lower GPAs; and students who reported cheating rated "Straying from the subject" as a less serious offense than did those who did not report cheating. The faculty behavior listed as least serious of all ("Is much too easy; no challenge; all students can make As") was correlated only with year in college. Upperclass students rated this behavior as much more serious than did lowerclass students.

Conclusions and Recommendations for College Faculty

This research adds to existing knowledge by exploring the relevance of equity theory to the college classroom. Earlier research has not explored the criteria for maximizing fairness in the college classroom nor the possible implications for maintaining an atmosphere of unfairness. However, this study, by analyzing student perceptions of fairness, has brought to light some of the criteria necessary for optimal student satisfaction and learning. The relationship between fairness and learning has not been directly investigated, though several related findings suggest that student perceptions of interactional or procedural unfairness in the classroom are highly correlated with, if not the cause of, not only lower student satisfaction but decreased learning as well. Studies repeatedly show correlations between instructor fairness and student achievement (Bryson, 1974; Frey, 1976; Marsh & Overall, 1980). In addition, we might find that dropping out, underachievement, poor academic motivation, and failure are all related, at least partly, to student perceptions of interactional or procedural unfairness.

Previous studies have emphasized the importance of considerations of equity in grading policies (Rodabaugh & Kravitz, 1994) and the importance of procedural fairness in testing procedures and setting classroom policies (Rodabaugh & Kravitz, in press). In addition, the present study emphasizes the importance of not only procedural fairness in the classroom but also the need for interactional fairness. Faculty members who wish to optimize college student learning and satisfaction should keep the following research findings in mind.

1. Student perceptions of fairness among their professors is correlated with ratings of happiness with college.

2. Student happiness with college is correlated with grade point averages.

3. The most serious offense a faculty member can commit is to show partiality toward some students. In addition, students also consider other interactional offenses to be very serious: being angry or mean, and embarrassing students in class.

4. Procedural offenses which are perceived to be especially serious include being unfair in grading and using unfair tests.

5. Even though older students are especially sensitive to unfairness by faculty, they still rate professors as being more fair, and they are happier with college than younger students.

6. Females are more sensitive to faculty misbehaviors and see unfairness as a more serious matter than do males.

Faculty members should remember that college students are more concerned with fairness in the classroom than with easy grades or brilliant lectures. Students do not object to strict rules as long as the rules are fair and administered equally. Students will even accept excessive work and difficult tests if faculty members are fair. If a college faculty member creates an atmosphere of fairness and impartiality, students will usually respond with respect and, if given the opportunity, select that faculty member for a class.

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Section IV

Classroom Practices for Teaching Improvement

Actively engaging students in the learning process and providing them with opportunities to work cooperatively improve student learning. Cottel and Millis describe "Complex Cooperative Learning Structures for College and University Courses" and provide suggestions for instructional developers who may wish to introduce cooperative learning to their faculty. In "Conducting the Cooperative Case," Millis combines case study methodology with cooperative learning techniques and shows how the technique can be used with both faculty and students.

In "The Value of Classroom Humor" Nichols, Amick, and Healy argue that humor, properly used, can enhance student learning. They present a workshop and materials that can be used with faculty to introduce appropriate humor into the classroom.

Complex Cooperative Learning Structures for College and University Courses

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Instructors who have succeeded with cooperative learning in their classrooms may wish to move beyond the basics of structured small group work to more complex techniques which enable them to simultaneously meet multiple teaching objectives. This paper describes cooperative learning structures which not only help students learn course material but also enhance their learning skills. Instructors who use complex cooperative learning structures prompt their students to teach, to question, and to evaluate the learning of their peers.

Cooperative learning, a structured form of small group learning, has become increasingly accepted as an exemplary pedagogy at the college and university level. Grounded solidly in theory and research and endorsed by numerous classroom practitioners, cooperative learning

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Portions of this paper have been adapted from Cottell, P.G. & Millis B.J., *Instructor's resource guide [for] financial accounting: Information for decisions* by Robert Ingram. Used with permission of South-Western Publishing Company.

has proved to be a powerful classroom approach. Based on two key assumptions, positive interdependence (students have a vested reason to work together) and individual accountability (students cannot coast on the work of others: they are assessed individually), cooperative learning approaches consistently result in increased academic achievement. In addition to raising student achievement, cooperative learning can also have a dramatic impact on classroom climate because students involved in structured small group work usually develop a liking for the subject matter as well as a liking and respect for their fellow group members and classmates, regardless of their different ages, genders, or academic and ethnic backgrounds. Thus, cooperative learning assumes particular significance with the influx of nontraditional students into diverse classrooms.

These positive effects, plus many others, are supported by a solid research base. Cooperative learning is, according to Slavin (1989-1990), "one of the most thoroughly researched of all instructional methods" (p. 52). Johnson, Johnson, and Smith (1991b) conclude:

> During the past 90 years, over 575 experimental and 100 correlational studies have been conducted by a wide variety of researchers in different decades with different age subjects, in different subject areas, and in different settings. . . . Far more is known about the efficacy of cooperative learning than about lecturing, . . . the use of technology, or almost any other facet of education. (p. 28)

Furthermore, although much of the research has been conducted at the K-12 level, Natasi and Clements (1991) conclude that the benefits of cooperative learning, described as "enhance[d] academic achievement and cognitive growth, motivation and positive attitudes toward learning, social competence, and interpersonal relations," (p. 111) seem to be universal. They emphasize that:

> Cognitive-academic and social-emotional benefits have been reported for students from early elementary through college level, from diverse ethnic and cultural backgrounds, and having a wide range of ability levels. . . . Furthermore, cooperative learning has been used effectively across a wide range of content areas, including mathematics, reading, language arts, social studies, and science. (p. 111)

Thus, cooperative learning is also one of the most versatile educational strategies available. It complements virtually every pedagogy or approach known to promote effective teaching and learning: classroom research, the "Seven Principles for Good Practice in Undergraduate Education," stimulus materials, case studies, and problem-based curriculum. [Readers interested in detailed overviews of the research base for cooperative learning as it applies to higher education should consult Cooper, Prescott, Cook, Smith, Mueck, and Cuseo (1990) or Johnson, Johnson, and Smith (1991a).]

Cooperative Learning Structures

Cooperative learning is predicated on a nonelitist educational philosophy that values the growth and achievement of each student while recognizing the power of structured, supportive group work to further individual academic and personal potential. Structures are the content-free building blocks or tools that allow instructors to operationalize the philosophical basis of cooperative learning. Instructors insert their own content-specific information to create a classroom activity tied to course objectives. Thus, a brainstorming structure such as Roundtable used with specific course content—such as listing potential paper topics in a composition class or identifying significant issues facing Congress in a government class—results in an interactive, relevant classroom activity. Many structures used by a wide variety of teachers at all educational levels are effective in college and university courses. Because much of the early work on cooperative learning was done at the K-12 level, the nomenclature, unfortunately, does not always suggest the rigor associated with postsecondary work. Faculty members committed to the principles of cooperative learning and the positive effects it will have on student achievement and affective behaviors, must simply remain open-minded and ignore the sometimes "cutesy" terminology. More productively, they might wish to substitute other terms when they use the structures with their students. For example, an effective activity called by Kagan (1992, p. 10:2-10:5) "Numbered Heads Together" and by Johnson, et al., (1991b, p. 4:16) "Problem Solving Lesson" sounds more palatable to college and university students when it is labeled "Structured Problem

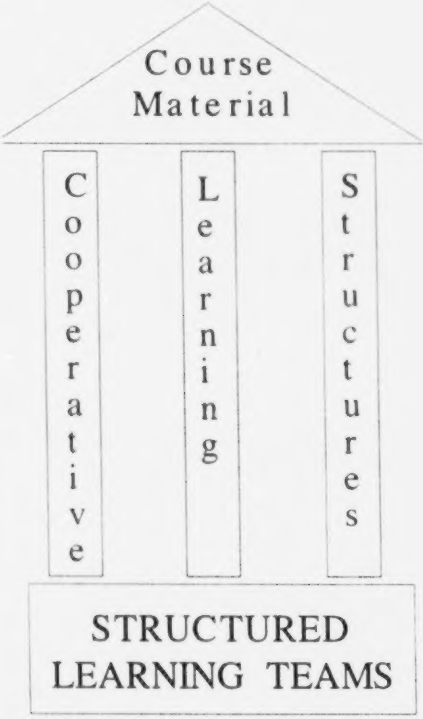
Solving." The point is: cooperative learning structures work, call them what one may.

A key advantage of cooperative learning rests in its versatility. Faculty developers urge their teaching colleagues to take risks in their teaching but not to rush precipitously into trying too much too soon. Those new to cooperative learning—sometimes those who have tried unsuccessfully other less structured forms of group work—should begin initially with the basic structures such as Think-Pair-Share (Kagan, 1992, pp. 11:2-11:3; Millis, 1990, p. 49; Cottell & Millis, 1993, pp. 32-34). Faculty wishing to implement the complex cooperative learning structures that follow must have moved beyond casual, sporadic group work and committed themselves to establishing ongoing, long-term structured learning teams. Complex cooperative learning structures are supported by powerful secondary learning objectives that complement the primary content-related learning objectives. These secondary objectives prompt students to teach, to question, and to evaluate the learning of their peers. Complex cooperative learning structures enhance learning skills—writing and critical thinking skills in particular—as students cooperatively help one another assume responsibility for understanding course material.

Structured Learning Teams

Structured learning teams are the foundation upon which faculty build their cooperative learning classrooms. These permanent or semi-permanent teams usually stay in place for a semester or half a semester. Using structured activities resulting in interactions within and among these teams, faculty can facilitate course learning. The course content is supported by the cooperative learning structures (see Figure One). Although some well-known advocates of cooperative learning such as Johnson, et al., (1991a, 1991b) recommend teams of three, most university and college level practitioners prefer heterogeneous groups of four or quads. Teams composed of four students offer several advantages: (a) quads are small enough that group members tend to stay attentive and on task. They can't hide or tune-out as might happen, for instance, in a group of eight or, more significantly, in a typical college classroom predicated on whole-class discussion; (b) quads are large enough to function smoothly when a team member is occasionally absent; and (c) quads lend themselves well to pair work, a powerful way to stimulate student achievement and critical thinking skills. If a class divides unevenly, it is easy to add a fifth member to several teams—often a student who may not be as strong as other team members, usually because of absenteeism but sometimes because of weak academic preparation. In such teams, of course, the students should never realize who the add-on might be.

FIGURE 1



This figure is adapted from Cottell, P.G. & Millis, B.J. (1994). *Instructor's resource guide for financial accounting: Information for decisions* by Robert Ingram. Cincinnati: South-Western. Adapted by permission.

Structured learning teams, unlike looser collaborative groups, are supported by the instructor's intense, but nonintrusive involvement. Instructors initially provide a great deal of direction and carefully monitor group activities and dynamics. For example, the instructor carefully defines the roles of team members as well as the interactions within and among the teams. These interactions are never taken for granted: both instructors and students must insure that all team members are contributing to and benefitting from a productive learning environment.

Many instructors have discovered the value of a common deck of playing cards to organize teams, to facilitate cooperative directives, and to establish a sense of equity in calling on students. A different card issued to each student provides three crucial pieces of information. First, the rank of the card designates the team to which the student belongs; for example, the four students holding jacks become the structured learning team called the jacks, aces become aces, and so forth. (To build team camaraderie, instructors with classes under 60 may encourage teams to establish their own unique team names and identities.)

Second, the suit of the playing card identifies the role each student plays during a given class period and, unless otherwise specified, the role she or he plays for the cooperative activities. Rotating these roles helps build positive interdependence. This practice also discourages domination by one person, a problem common in less structured group work, and gives all students an opportunity to practice various social, communication, and leadership skills. The following defined roles work well in college and university courses:

- Leader - keeps the team on the assigned task and insures that all members of the team have the opportunity to learn, to participate, and to earn the respect of their teammates. Makes certain that all team members have mastered the required material during team activities.
- Monitor - sees that the team's work area is left the way that the team found it. Acts as the timekeeper for timed activities. In teams of four, assumes the role of any missing team member. In disciplines such as accounting where calculators are used for problem-solving, the Monitor operates the single team calculator, thus

reinforcing positive interdependence. In teams of four, consults with other teams as directed.

- Recorder - keeps records of all team activities, including—if appropriate—the contributions of each member, in order to facilitate later assessment of individual accountability. If team folders are used, the recorder picks up the team folder and records attendance, homework, and/or quiz scores. Writes out solutions to problems or written assignments (for team use as notes or for submission to the instructor). Prepares transparencies for overhead projection when the team makes an oral presentation.
- Reporter - gives oral responses to the class about the team's activities or conclusions, often based on notes provided by the recorder.
- Wild Card (for teams of five) - acts as an assistant to the team leader. Assumes the role of any missing team member. Consults other teams for assistance when the instructor so indicates.

These assigned roles emphasize the value of all team members, thus raising individual self-esteem while simultaneously building group cohesion. Rotating the roles helps students learn and practice social teamwork skills, particularly for those students needing to cultivate them for the first time. This emphasis on rotating roles prepares all students for success not only in the cooperative learning classroom but also in the real world of adult life where teamwork is essential.

Third, the color of the suit indicates to the student his or her suit partner, that individual with whom the student will work when the instructor is using paired cooperative learning structures such as Think-Pair-Share or the Within-Team Jigsaw (discussed later).

Playing cards have other advantages as well. Because each student is readily identifiable, faculty can keep track of whom they have called on during the course of a semester. After a problem-solving activity, for example, the instructor might ask for summaries from the reporters (who might be the clubs on that given day) from three specific teams, the Jacks, the Aces, and the Fours. By keeping running notations of these respondents by their respective cards, instructors can be certain the next time that different individuals report out. This technique is also useful for whole-class discussions: eventually the instructor can be certain that everyone is called upon, not just those who are the quickest and most vociferous hand-raisers. As a variation, faculty can create a sense of fairness during whole-class discussions by randomly drawing a card from a second deck kept for that purpose.

Careful team formation can ensure the success of small groups. Cooperative learning advocates agree that heterogeneity enhances the effectiveness of structured group work. Cottell and Millis (1993; 1994) discuss cooperative learning structures useful for team formation. Many faculty members assign students to permanent or semipermanent structured learning teams or groups on the basis of data sheets they collect. In a junior-level children's literature class, for example, it might be useful to distribute students on the basis of their majors (making certain that an English major is assigned to each team); gender (adding a male to each team to ensure more balanced discussions); number of children in the household (encouraging the sharing of real world experiences); and ethnicity (reinforcing the value of multiple perspectives). In an accounting course, students might be assigned to structured learning teams on the basis of other criteria, such as intended area of emphasis (tax, auditing, financial or cost); academic achievement; prerequisites; previous work force experience, and so forth.

Complex Cooperative Learning Structures

Instructors who have succeeded with basic and advanced cooperative learning structures (see Cottell & Millis, 1993; 1994) will find that adding complex structures to their teaching repertoire results in greater variety and heightened interest for students and for themselves. Most importantly, these complex structures promote higher order thinking skills and build more meaningful interpersonal relationships, ones that tend to keep students more involved academically. To use the complex cooperative learning structures, instructors will need to plan carefully each classroom activity. This planning will pay rich rewards in terms of deeper student comprehension of course material and appreciation of the learning process. When instructors share their methods and motives with students, they help students develop lifelong skills of learning how to learn by emphasizing metacognitive skills.

Students actively involved with complex cooperative learning structures enhance their learning skills as they assume more responsibility for understanding the material. Instructors who use these structures assist students in developing skills of teaching, of questioning, and of evaluating the learning of others. Each of these activities results in greater student understanding. Each of them also promotes the two key elements of cooperative learning: positive interdependence and individual accountability. Although each of these complex structures stimulates multiple cognitive and affective outcomes—and that is their value—they are divided here according to their primary functions: teaching, questioning, and critiquing.

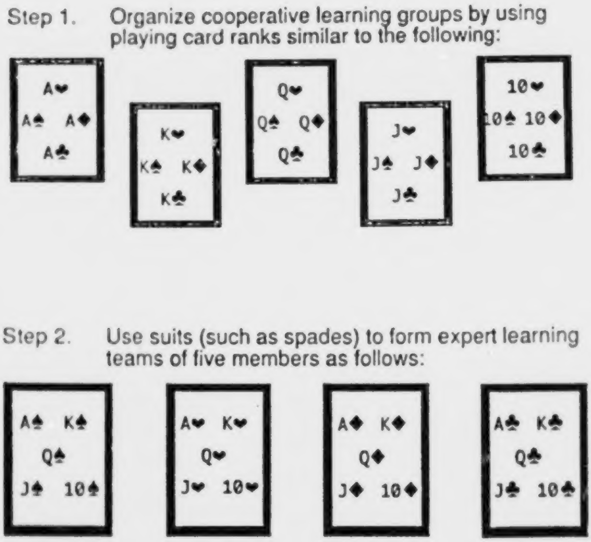
Structures for Student Teaching

Virtually all instructors recognize that through teaching they have learned more deeply the content and concepts of their discipline. Ironically, under a strict lecture format, conscientious instructors polishing and updating their presentations continue to add to their growing knowledge while their students, depending on a number of variables, may or may not come close to mastering the same body of material or developing the same analytical skills. Effective teaching results from "students teaching other students," according to McKeachie, Pintrich, Lin and Smith (1986, p. 63) who conducted an exhaustive review of the research literature on college and university learning. Through the cooperative learning structures discussed in this section, instructors give their students the rich opportunity to learn by teaching.

Jigsaw. Many disciplines contain complex, challenging problems involving multiple pieces of information necessary for a final, overall solution or overview. Such challenges are ideally suited for the cooperative learning structure, Jigsaw. Jigsaw, as its name implies, suggests that assignments can be split into manageable units that students can explore in depth. If students are in quads, then a task would be divided into four distinct but mutually related parts: In a Jigsaw these parts must add up to a meaningful whole. In this structure, each member of the structured learning team assumes responsibility for a specific part of a problem. For example, in a literature class, rather than having one team work superficially on four different character analyses, each student takes one particular character and with new teammates goes deeply into a close textual analysis. In an accounting class each student may analyze four separate business transactions which combine into a single financial report.

In Jigsaw, students temporarily leave their structured learning teams (home teams) to form expert learning teams which may be organized, for example, on the basis of the suits of playing cards. The student holding the heart from each of the groups meets with the other hearts in the class. Those holding spades, diamonds, and clubs form similar expert teams. Figure Two illustrates how a class of 20 can be

FIGURE 2


Step 1. Organize cooperative learning groups by using playing card ranks similar to the following:

Step 2. Use suits (such as spades) to form expert learning teams of five members as follows:

This figure is adapted from Cottell, P.G. & Millis, B.J. (1994). *Instructor's resource guide for financial accounting: Information for decisions.* Cincinnati: South-Western. Adapted by permission.

quickly transformed from five structured learning teams into four expert learning teams with five members, one from each of the original groups. If classes are larger, students can form two or more expert teams to work on the same piece of the puzzle. If the original structured team consists of five members rather than four, then two students pair and work as a unit in their expert team and then they return to their original team.

In expert learning teams, the students focus on mastering, solving, or analyzing their part of the problem or issue. They also discuss and develop strategies to teach the solution—and the process of deriving it—to the other members of their structured learning (home) teams once they have rejoined them. Students must recognize that for Jigsaw to succeed, no one should leave his or her expert team without the ability to explain clearly—to teach—the process and procedures just developed. Instructors move among the various expert teams monitoring their progress and checking to see that all students are involved. After the prescribed time, the students return to their structured learning teams where the expert students in turn teach their respective piece of the puzzle.

Instructors must work conscientiously to structure the team activities, the physical logistics, and the time frame of a Jigsaw. This is not a structure that should be attempted by relative newcomers to cooperative learning, particularly if large classes are involved. Students, too, must be coached to understand both the mechanics and the value of Jigsaw. Instructors must guard, for example, against student tendencies to get off task. Instructors must clearly communicate to students that more is at stake than finding the right answer. The ability to teach fellow teammates—and hence master and retain important materials and develop analytical skills—lies at the crux of Jigsaw. Thus, a properly executed Jigsaw provides benefits that far outweigh its costs in terms of time and effort. For one thing, like most complex structures, Jigsaw reinforces the most basic tenets of cooperative learning. Positive interdependence is fostered by the fact that students must work together and teach one another in order to get the big picture, all of the information and skills they will need to understand the entire problem or academic task. At the same time, individual accountability is reinforced by the fact that students must learn all the information, not just their own portion, because they are tested individually. The fact that students interact within two different groups reinforces the value of heterogeneity in bringing multiple perspectives to a given problem. The positive interactions that result from these brief, but intense, encounters in the expert groups help to develop the skills students will need in the real world. The fact that expert teams have the responsibility of making certain that all members can successfully teach the materials/conclusions also reinforces the important concept of group processing and accountability.

Within-Team Jigsaw. In Within-Team Jigsaw, expert learning teams consist of a pair formed within the structured learning team. Any fifth member (sometimes identified with a wild card or joker) joins a pair to form a triad. If instructors are using playing cards to identify team roles, the suits can be used for pairing, black suits forming one pair and red suits the other. These suit partners function as smaller expert learning teams, similar in function to those formed in Jigsaw.

Instructors who use Think-Pair-Square (Kagan, 1992, p. 11:3) should explain the difference between that structure and Within-Team Jigsaw. In Think-Pair-Square, students simultaneously work on the same task and verify their answers in the structured learning team. In the more complex Within-Team Jigsaw, suit partners work on two distinct parts of a puzzle or other academic task. Their task in the structured learning team is to put together the pieces to arrive at a solution and to teach other members of the structured learning team their portion of the problem.

Within-Team Jigsaw is easier to implement than Jigsaw, primarily because it does not involve physical movement into new teams. Its disadvantage lies in the fact that the puzzle or academic task can have only two pieces. Within-Team Jigsaw, however, can be a creative, efficient way to ensure content mastery and build higher order thinking skills.

Structures for Student Questioning

Faculty frequently encounter dualistic thinkers who assume there are absolute answers to questions, *i.e.*, those in stages one through three in Perry's (1970) scheme or in the early stages of the hierarchy described by Belenky, Clinchy, Goldberger, and Tarule (1986).

These students need to be encouraged to move beyond these simplistic levels of thinking. Often instructors assume that animated whole-class discussions will lead students to reflect on multiple viewpoints and discard outmoded ways of thinking. Such discussions provide useful class interactions when used occasionally; but, for many reasons, they cannot be the sole vehicle for challenging student assumptions and encouraging higher order thinking skills. For one thing, whole-class discussions are unpredictable. Successful discussions depend on many variables: the instructor's experience and skill in managing such exchanges; the constellation of personalities enrolled in the class and their reactions to instructor or student contributions; the academic preparation and real life experiences of the participants; and the nature of the topic itself. Furthermore, within a whole class exchange, many students are able to hide as nonparticipants, behavior prompted by innate shyness, by lack of comfort or confidence with confrontations before large audiences, by lack of preparation, or by simple apathy.

Cooperative learning structures enable instructors to help students learn to question the truth of assumptions or propositions, but they do so within a highly structured environment with far fewer variables and hence less unpredictability. A supportive cooperative learning climate contrasts sharply, for example, with a classroom arena where the instructor relies on the stimulating Socratic method of challenging students with a series of thought-provoking questions. Both techniques are valuable, and savvy college instructors use both. But the value of cooperative learning questioning lies not only in the comfortable climate which encourages participation but more importantly in the fact that the students, not the instructors, pose the challenging questions. Structured Controversy and Guided Reciprocal Peer Questioning are stimulating ways to develop higher order thinking skills within a supportive environment. Ideally, classrooms provide the combination of challenge and support needed for student success (Widick, Knefelkamp, & Parker, 1975).

Structured Controversy. Structured Controversy—called Academic Controversy by Johnson, et al., (1991a)—develops critical thinking skills by compelling students to examine issues for which there are no right answers. As in Within-Team Jigsaw, students initially work with partners in their structured learning teams, such as suit partners if playing cards are used. In preparation for the activity, instructors identify a controversial topic that lends itself well to two opposing viewpoints and gather material — such as articles, monographs, or book chapters — that support either or both sides. If this structure is to be used for a long-range project, then the students themselves — with coaching — can identify and accumulate the material. Each pair within the structured learning team takes one side of the controversial issue. In the first of five phases of Structured Controversy, students research and review the academic materials provided or gathered, and discuss their side of the issue. They synthesize and organize their findings and prepare to advocate and defend their positions.

In the second phase, the two pairs alternatively present their side of the issue, giving full rationales and explanations for their stance. The other pair listens attentively, keeping in mind that during the next phase they will be challenging the points they hear and also defending their own positions.

In this third phase, during a general discussion all four students seek to become fully informed about both sides of the issue and begin to weigh critical arguments in favor of both. Instructors should stress that the students' purpose should be to become more informed about the issue rather than to win debates. They should use skillful questioning techniques to draw out their fellow teammates and to encourage everyone to examine deeply all sides of the issue. The result of the discussion, which must be conducted and carefully monitored according to established team or class norms for productive behavior and interaction, is often intellectual disequilibrium and uncertainty. This phase of the activity is particularly important because Brookfield (1987) and others have emphasized that critical thinking depends on identifying and challenging assumptions and subsequently exploring and conceptualizing alternatives. Curiosity prompted by this discussion often leads to a search for additional information.

If the process is carried through its full five phases, then during this next fourth step, students reverse their positions and each pair argues forcefully for the opposing viewpoint. Building on what they have heard earlier and what they have come to learn through their own research and the subsequent team discussion, each pair or dyad presents the best possible case.

In the fifth and final phase, the team works together to synthesize its findings and prepare a group report. This final review should reflect the best information and critical reasoning from both sides. To insure individual accountability, the instructor may wish to administer an examination over the issue that students will take independently.

Guided Reciprocal Peer Questioning. Instructors wishing to encourage critical thinking skills and higher-order conceptualizing will find Guided Reciprocal Peer Questioning a particularly apt structure. Developed and researched by King (1992; 1990), this structure helps

FIGURE 3

Generic Question Stems

- What is the main idea of…?
- What if…?
- How does…affect…?
- What is the meaning of…?
- What is a new example of…?
- Explain why…
- Explain how…
- How does this relate to what I've learned before?
- What conclusions can I draw about…?
- What is the difference between…and…?
- How are…and…similar?
- How would I use…to…?
- What are the strengths and weaknesses of…?
- What is the best…and why…?

This figure appears in *Critical thinking, interactive learning and technology* by Alison King, page 162, Arthur Andersen and Co., 1992. Reprinted with permission students to generate content-specific questions which can then be answered within the structured learning team.

In a lecture-related version of this activity, instructors conduct a short lecture on a course-related topic. Following the lecture, instructors provide students with a set of generic question stems to use as a guide for formulating their own specific questions about the lecture content. Figure Three provides a list of these generic question stems. Some questions, such as "What is the difference between...and...?," will appeal more to dualistic thinkers. Other questions, such as "What are the strengths and weaknesses of...?," are more appropriate for the more advanced relativistic thinkers. Instructors will also recognize that the generic stems challenge students to formulate questions on all six levels of Bloom's cognitive taxonomy: knowledge, comprehension, application, analysis, synthesis, and evaluation.

Instructors provide individual students with a set time—five minutes or less—to use the generic stems to prepare two or three specific, thought-provoking questions on the lecture they have just heard. Students do not need to be able to answer the questions they formulate: their purpose is to generate discussion. As students formulate questions, they tend to identify the relevant lecture concepts, elaborate on those ideas, and think about how the ideas are connected to each other and their own prior knowledge and experiences.

After the allotted time has elapsed, the students then query one another in their structured learning teams. A designated team member asks the quad to respond to one of the specific questions he or she has written. Since the questions do not have a single right answer, reflective discussion follows. Each student in turn offers a question, using a different question stem, for the team to discuss. Everyone should have an opportunity to pose at least one question: the leader should be careful that there is equitable participation both in the discussion and in the questions shared.

In designing a Guided Reciprocal Peer Questioning activity, instructors should schedule the time elements carefully. Time should be allotted, for example, for whole class discussion at the end of the exercise. Here the students can share insights, concrete examples, and particularly cogent explanations that arose in their group work. The instructor, who has been moving among the groups during their discussion period, also has an opportunity to elaborate on any cloudy points or to clear up any misconceptions about the topic under study. Closure is extremely important in cooperative classrooms. Students should not feel that instructors have abandoned their teaching responsibilities. The generic question stems are useful in many other contexts, such as reviewing chapter assignments or preparing for upcoming quizzes or examinations.

Structures for Student Critiquing

The structures for student critiquing contain rich learning opportunities for students. In each case, students formulate questions, suggest answers to the questions of others, and evaluate the responses generated by peers. Students therefore learn not only important concepts about the discipline but also learn about the learning and teaching process itself. The structures prompt students to move into the higher levels of Bloom's taxonomy, particularly evaluation. Such approaches also allow the instructor to front-load material, building in incentives for students to actually master assigned reading material, including textbook chapters. Too often in traditional classrooms instructors are disappointed that students do not come to class prepared to discuss—through whole-class methods where students typically can hide—assigned material. In teaching methods such as team learning, developed by Michaelson (1983; 1992) to cope with large classes, students have strong incentives to master material before they take individual and group tests. During the group test and a subsequent appeal process, students actively teach, challenge, and critique one another within the relatively safe confines of a structured learning team. Similarly, the two cooperative structures that follow enable students to experience meaningful, collaborative, intellectual dialogues.

Send/Pass-a-Problem. The Send/Pass-a-Problem structure gives students the opportunity to identify or focus on their own issues or problems and to experience the problem solving process in the context of community. The exact source of this structure is unclear, but a version of it was generated by the Howard County, Maryland Staff Development Center in 1989, inspired by Kagan's (1992) high consensus oriented Send-a-Problem structure using rotating flash cards for content review.

To initiate Send/Pass-a-Problem, instructors must have at hand a list of problems or issues for which the structured learning teams can generate solutions. These issues can be identified by the instructor, but students have far more investment in the activity if they have generated the possible topics themselves while in their teams. The issues typically are discussed at the same class meeting, but an alternative, particularly attractive for faculty teaching 50-minute classes, is to have students generate the problem topics during one session (perhaps using a brainstorming structure such as Roundtable) and then pose them for discussion at the ensuing session.

The steps in Send/Pass-a-Problem, once each team identifies the issue or problem it will address, are fairly straightforward: (a) Each team discusses its particular problem and generates within the given time frame as many solutions as possible; the solutions, recorded on a sheet of paper, are placed in a folder (an envelope will also work well) with the problem addressed clearly noted on the outside. (b) The folders are passed clockwise to another team who does not open the folder. That team, seeing only the problem identification but not the solutions generated by the previous team, follows an identical procedure and brainstorms solutions, placing their recorded conclusions in the folder or envelope. (c) The folders are passed a third time, but in this case, the team opens the folder and reviews the ideas/solutions generated by the other two teams. They are able to add additional ideas of their own, but their primary task is to identify the two most viable solutions to the given problem or issue. Instructors may want them to use a star or a check to identify these solutions. (d) Group reports provide useful closure. The reporters announce the issue their team discussed, the two solutions they have chosen, and, if desired, the team that suggested them. The creativity and multiplicity of solutions reinforces the value of structured teamwork.

Send/Pass-a-Problem is an extremely variable structure. It can be used successfully as a brainstorming activity with each team blitzing through as many solutions as possible within a narrow time limit, such as three minutes for each step. Most often, however, the structure is used as a vehicle for meaningful discussion, thoughtful synthesis, and creative problem solving.

Instructors will find Send/Pass-a-Problem useful for reviews, particularly prior to the final examination. To initiate a review, the instructor brings to class old quiz problems or exercises attached to folders or envelopes. The quiz problems or essay issues obviously reflect topics that have been covered during the semester that may appear on the final examination. Each structured learning team receives one of the envelopes.

The instructor tells the students that their team will have 10 minutes to solve the quiz problem or generate a topical essay as a closed-book exercise. When the time has expired, the students put their solution inside the folder or envelope and pass the packet clock-wise to the neighboring team. Students in the next group solve the same problem or address the same essay topic without looking into the envelope and add their solution at the end of 10 minutes. Depending on the length of the class period, this procedure may be repeated up to five times so that each group solves five problems or addresses five essay questions.

On the final pass, the instructor tells the students to retrieve all the solutions in the envelope and select the best solution, taking into account not only the right answer but also the neatness of form and presentation or the organizational and persuasive strengths of the essays. Group reporters in turn designate the problem, briefly explain the best approach for solving it, and identify, if desired, the group that presented it. A similar procedure can be used as a review over assigned material such as a particularly complex chapter.

Dyadic Essay Confrontations (DEC). In addition to building student understanding of course material concepts and the learning process, DEC allows instructors to incorporate meaningful writing assignments into their courses. Instructors will find DEC particularly valuable for students more advanced in the learning process. Probably its most important use is to insure that students read and understand the assigned reading material, thereby freeing class time for mastery and processing activities.

Developed by Sherman (1991), in DEC the instructor assigns readings, such as a chapter from the text or a chapter complemented by a primary source or other selected readings. Students are responsible outside of class for the following: (a) reading and reflecting on the assigned material; (b) formulating an integrative essay question, one which encourages comparisons between the current material and material previously covered; (c) preparing a model response to their own question which is no longer than one page, single-spaced; (d) bringing to class a copy of their essay question and on a separate page their model answer.

During class time, students are responsible for the following: (e) exchanging essay questions with a student with whom they are randomly paired; (f) writing a spontaneous essay in response to the question they receive from their partner; (g) reading and commenting on both the model answer to the question they received and on the spontaneous answer provided by a classmate to the essay question they formulated, looking in each case for divergent and convergent ideas; and (h) participating — if time permits — in a general discussion of the topic.

The essays over the assigned material — both the out-of-class open-book paper and the in-class closed-book spontaneous essay — are evaluated, but their weight depends on the overall grading criteria. To lighten the paper grading load, the essays, if they are of sufficient quality, may be assigned points counting toward the final grade rather than assigned a specific letter grade, a form of mastery learning. DEC can be used as a series of ongoing assignments over the course of a semester to ensure mastery of the course content, particularly as it relates to assigned readings in textbooks. Students who have written two essays and read two others over each chapter in a textbook, particularly if connections to lecture topics and other outside materials are emphasized, will retain far more material than those who have merely read the chapters (or not!) and then heard a lecturer expound on them.

As should be obvious, a complex and yet highly focused structure such as DEC has enormous value for university teaching and learning. With the virtue of versatility, it can promote higher order thinking skills; focus students on outside assignments so that time is available for interactive group work rather than for lectures designed to cover the content; foster student-student interdependence, resulting in respect for diverse opinions; and reinforce the value of peer learning. It also complements writing across the curriculum efforts.

As a modification of DEC, instructors may have students compose a problem and a suggested solution. Students participating in the problem-writing portion of this structure glean a greater understanding of the underlying course material concepts than they do by simply working prefabricated problems from a book. Moreover, discussions of the student-generated problems and solutions are more meaningful than discussions of solutions asked by unknown textbook or case authors.

Summary and Conclusion

With the increasing demands for accountability in teaching, faculty must adopt more innovative teaching strategies, effective ones predicated on active learning, cooperation, and respect for individual learning styles. Increasingly, both researchers and classroom practitioners are recommending cooperative learning. Structured in-class activities are a hallmark of cooperative learning, probably a welcome sign for those who fear group work will be considered a loose teaching philosophy practiced by lazy instructors intent on winging it.

Far from being a loose teaching philosophy, because of its structured and accountable approach, cooperative learning demands careful preparation and well-organized, well-conducted, relevant classroom activities and assignments. As Cooper, et al., (1990) cautions, "The three most important things in setting up a Cooperative Learning classroom are Structure, Structure, and Structure" (p. 1).

Complex structures require faculty members to make a key commitment toward student learning. They must feel comfortable with placing students in permanent or semipermanent learning teams, and they must be willing and eager to monitor their progress. They must also be innovators who can integrate these structures into their course objectives to create meaningful, student-centered classroom activities. The payoffs in student learning, retention, liking for subject matter and classmates — as one might expect — will be enormous. Research supports this and countless practitioners will testify to the power of this approach. The good news for faculty is that their tasks become easier as they and their students become more accustomed to structures such as Guided Reciprocal Peer Questioning, Send/Pass-a-Problem, or DEC.

Many faculty members at a variety of institutions have successfully embraced cooperative learning techniques. Few ever return to teaching as usual. Such an approach will no longer suffice in a global, connected world where new technologies demand lifelong learning and diverse societies require the ability to work and live harmoniously with many different people. As Ekroth (1990, p. 1) notes, "Today's professors are challenged to teach a student population increasingly diverse in age, levels of academic preparation, styles of learning, and cultural background. Professors are now expected not only to 'cover the material' but also to help students to think critically, write skillfully, and speak competently."

Faculty members using complex cooperative learning structures within the context of their philosophical framework and the logistics of effective day-to-day classroom management techniques will discover new joys in teaching. Their students will discover new joys in learning.

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Conducting Cooperative Cases

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The power of case studies has been well-documented. Most facilitators use the widely known whole-group Harvard discussion model. However, a cooperative case approach serves as an effective alternative or supplementary approach. This article, which uses—appropriately—the example of a cooperative learning case study, provides a detailed look at the cooperative case study method, including its rationale and value, creative group formations, and facilitation guidelines.

Conducting Cooperative Cases

The case study method is becoming more widely known and used by faculty development workshop presenters and by innovative classroom instructors. Cases bring immediacy and relevance to discussion topics. They also encourage active learning presentation methods by engaging workshop participants or students in stimulating, experiential, real-world scenarios. Such scenarios promote active problem-solving and critical thinking skills. Wilkerson and Boehrer (1992) conclude that cases can be used effectively in workshop settings "to introduce new educational concepts, provoke attitudinal changes, provide practice in solving . . . problems, and stimulate the desire to acquire new skills" (p. 253).

Cases too are wonderfully versatile. Faculty developers responsive to the needs of different faculty constituents can, for example, use various versions of case studies. Thus, they may develop chameleon cases, generic classroom-based cases where primary characters can—

without harm to the content—change their names, genders, and disciplines. For example, Betty Miles, a children's literature instructor in "Betty Miles's Worst Nightmare: A Cooperative Learning Dilemma," easily became Bob Miles, a balding accountant for a five-day cooperative learning workshop sponsored by Deloitte and Touche, one of the big six accounting firms. Later, Betty, renamed Bonnie, slipped quietly to the front of a "Pharmacy, Law and Ethics" classroom during a pharmacy conference. (See Appendices B and C for the opening pages of these cases).

Faculty respond much more readily to a case tailored to their specific interests and needs. They appreciate the use of discipline-specific examples. Often such chameleon cases can be adapted with minimal effort after consultation with colleagues who can provide the urgently needed discipline-specific material and after careful editing to remove inappropriate gender or name references.

Most faculty developers recognize that how material is presented is as important as the material itself. Thus, whenever possible—virtually regardless of the content—faculty developers should themselves use innovative, interactive facilitation strategies with the deliberate aim of encouraging faculty to adopt similar strategies in the classroom. One effective approach—which lends itself beautifully to case studies—is cooperative learning, a highly effective, well-researched classroom pedagogy (Astin, 1993; Cooper, Prescott, Cook, Smith, Mueck, and Cuseo, 1990; Johnson, Johnson, and Smith, 1991). The cooperative learning approach can be applied to virtually any case, but it is particularly well-suited when the content of the case, as in the examples above, is itself cooperative learning.

To illustrate the power of the cooperative case approach, the Betty Miles version of the case (Appendix A) will be used in this article. "Betty Miles's Worst Nightmare" offers an insightful look at a first-day-of-class experience of an instructor well-versed in innovative, cooperative learning techniques. Betty is confident, competent, and well-prepared. But something goes wrong . . .. Through cooperative learning methods, workshop participants have an opportunity to reflect on Betty's experiences and to offer suggestions for possible corrective and future preventative actions.

Rationale for a Cooperative Approach

The most commonly used case discussion format is the whole-group case method developed by the Harvard Business School (Christensen and Hansen, 1987). This method, used effectively with groups as large as 30, usually engages all participants in an active, stimulating, teacher-directed discussion. It has the advantage of eliciting multiple viewpoints and drawing on a wide range of experiences. It also results in a shared experience with all participants exposed to the same ideas. The facilitators, too, have ample opportunities to offer summaries, to redirect misunderstandings, and to provide both guidance and a sense of closure.

Sometimes, however, cooperative approaches can offer more effective ways to deliver cases, particularly when, as with "Betty Miles," the content deals with a cooperative classroom setting. Cooperative learning strategies can be used either as a supplement or alternative to the whole-group case method. Thus, with "Betty Miles" form and function will be compatible, and participants will discover in cooperative learning a valuable alternative to the whole-group approach and a proven interactive classroom strategy.

Cooperative learning discussion methods are effective for a number of reasons: (a) the large group-format promotes interactions where usually only one individual at a time is center stage; in cooperative learning teams such as four-person quads, participants experience not this sequential participation, but simultaneous exchanges actively involving one-fourth of the workshop participants at any given moment; (b) whole-group formats—particularly if the exchanges are dynamic and thought-provoking—can sometimes provide risky arenas where less vocal members, sometimes women and minorities, are less likely to speak up, as they would in a small group setting; (c) whole-group exchanges, while intellectually stimulating, may not offer most individuals the opportunity to test their ideas and receive peer feedback within a relatively safe environment; and finally, (d) unlike whole-group discussions, a cooperative learning format where large groups are broken down into smaller units, allows for any number of participants.

Often the best approach will be a combination of the two models, with both structured small group work and whole-group discussion. The opportunity for whole-group discussion, involving both participant and facilitator input, may be particularly important for the report-outs so that all participants experience the same sense of positive closure. These discussion methods should be explained when the case is introduced.

Introducing the Cooperative Case

No effective case facilitator ever presumes to wing it: cooperative cases, like others, require extensive up-front planning. Whenever possible, it is helpful to give the case to participants about a week before the workshop. The "Betty Miles" case is short enough, however, that it can be read and digested within seven to ten minutes during the workshop setting. In any event, even if the case is mailed ahead, it is important to give participants a few minutes (three to five) for review. The case pretty much stands alone, so the facilitator need not provide much commentary. If participants are unfamiliar with the case method, then some background information is useful. As with all cooperative learning approaches, procedures and time limits must be clearly defined. Often the first step, however, will be to get participants into structured small groups.

Forming Groups

Group formation techniques will depend on variables such as the size of the overall group, the relative emphasis on enhancing teaching skills in the workshop setting, and the facilitator's familiarity with cooperative learning techniques.

The facilitator should determine the optimum size of the groups or teams. Three to six participants can work efficiently and effectively. The larger the size of the group, the less opportunity for individual participation. Many cooperative learning practitioners prefer groups of four, often called quads. There are several ways to place participants in their smaller teams. The following four approaches, placed in the order of their complexity, work well for case studies.

Random Seating: The facilitator can simply ask participants to form groups of a specified size. (Advantage: This is a quick and easy formation method requiring little movement on the part of the participants. Disadvantages: Such teams sometimes are ragged, with more or fewer members; friends sitting together end up on the same team, sometimes resulting in less heterogenous viewpoints.)

Random Count-off: An alternate random group formation method is simply to have participants count off repeatedly up to the number of teams desired. For example, a group of 37 would break logically into nine groups of four members with an extra member added to one team. The participants would simply count off 1-9, 1-9, 1-9, 1-9, and 1. Then each team unites on the basis of the designated number. (Advantage: Heterogeneity is likely to be achieved. Disadvantages: This formation technique involves movement distasteful to some participants; it will separate people who may prefer to work together; it involves some logistical planning such as placing numbered placards around a room—1, 2, 3-9 in the example—to help teams move quickly into place.)

Structured Problem Solving with Playing Cards: The facilitator distributes playing cards to each participant and at a given point asks them to move into four-person teams on the basis of the card number (aces together, deuces together, etc.) The participants are asked to perform group roles based on the suit of the card (*e.g.*, clubs serve as recorders, diamonds as team discussion leaders, and hearts as reporters). A highly effective technique—one in which classroom use should be emphasized—is to leave the team roles up in the air until just before the discussion begins. Teams thus are given a dual assignment: they must not only discuss the case and reach a consensus or an appropriate summary of discussion points, but they must also be certain that each team member is capable of serving as the team's reporter. Facilitators can point out that this approach in the classroom helps all students attend to the discussion because of their potential whole-class role and encourages group members to coach any teammates who may not be initially prepared to respond. (Advantages: Deliberate heterogeneity is achieved as the cards are distributed, particularly in the classroom; facilitators speak individually to each participant before the workshop officially begins, thus building rapport; the playing cards foster team cohesion and easy role identification; Disadvantages: Same as in Random Count-off.)

Value Line: This fairly complex cooperative learning technique works best with groups of 40 or less simply because of the space requirements. It is effective, however, for achieving balanced team representation on both sides of controversial issues. Facilitators ask participants to decide on their stance on a particular issue such as, with this case study, their acceptance of cooperative learning techniques. Participants assign themselves numbers based on a clearly explained Likert scale (*e.g.*, 5 = strong cooperative learning user and advocate, and 1 = a nonbeliever skeptical about the benefits of structured group work). The participants then line up on the basis of their number. After the lineup is complete—and straightened out, a common problem with large groups in confined spaces—the participants count off from one end of the line to the other. Each person, thus, has a single identification number, ranging from one to the last member's number in the group. The facilitator then forms four-person teams (quads) by determining the center of the line and calling on the two individuals from the ends of the lines and then the two people in the middle. This approach (two extreme ends and two from the center) continues until all participants/students are assigned to teams. (In a class of 20, for example, teams would be composed of the following members: 1, 20, 10, 9; 2, 19, 11, 8; 3, 18 , 12, 7; 4, 17, 13, 6; 5, 16, 14, 15.)

Two techniques can facilitate group placement in value lines: (1) facilitators can use a prenumbered transparency, making it easy to strike out the numbers they call and to visualize the progression inward from the ends and outward from the middle; (2) facilitators can ask a workshop participant to write on a board or flip chart the four numbers that compose each team, giving a visual aid to avoid confusion when a large number of people is involved. Playing cards to determine roles can be used effectively with these teams, also. Facilitators can distribute them as the teams are formed by asking one member to come forward to receive them. (Advantages: Value line is effective for case studies that involve polarizing issues by enabling team members to work with people having different opinions, thus providing the disequilibrium necessary to build critical thinking skills; participants are often intrigued by the technique and enjoy seeing the range of opinions; the physical movement—allowing brief, friendly exchanges with other participants—can be stimulating. Disadvantages: The same as in Random Count-off, but the logistics are even more challenging.)

The group formation method will directly affect the way the case is conducted. The use of playing cards, for example, helps facilitators to quickly assign group roles.

Getting the Groups on Task

Any cooperative case, like the Betty Miles one, must be sufficiently rich to allow each team to work on at least one focus question. Usually the facilitator will want to begin the case discussion with one or two general questions that can be explored in a whole-group format. All participants, regardless of their group assignment, can voice an opinion, for example, on the questions "What was your first impression of Betty's class?" and "Were the students justified in their opposition to group work?" This warm-up exercise helps sets the tone for open, interactive discussion and builds participant/student camaraderie.

To encourage in-depth discussion,the facilitator should assign each group one (or sometimes two) specific focus questions, rather than expecting each team to cover the wide range of potential topics. If five focus questions (numbers 3-7) remain and there are more than five groups, then two groups can work on the same question. This approach is often desirable because the subsequent report-outs reveal alternate viewpoints and solutions, reinforcing again the value of divergent opinions in a critical thinking setting.

Groups should be given specific instructions and time lines. For example, while introducing the case, the facilitator might also introduce discussion norms, such as listening attentively until each person has finished speaking, asking probing questions, and encouraging all group members to participate. Such instructions might seem fairly commonplace, but stating them up front has the value of empowering group members to challenge—based on the "authority" of the facilitator—any members who are not contributing productively or allowing others to do so.

The responsibilities of each team member—whether they are general group responsibilities or specific role-related ones such as serving as a leader or reporter—should be clearly delineated. It is important not to overcomplicate group roles by assigning too many or by making the duties overly complex. Adults do not like to feel manipulated. Three roles work well with case studies: (1) leader: keeps the team on task, monitors the time, ensures that all members have an opportunity to participate, and maintains a positive working environment; (2) recorder: summarizes the team's ideas and prepares any materials needed for the final report-out; (3) reporter: presents the team's suggestions/comments/solutions to the assigned focus question(s). In practice, any of these duties can be collapsed, with one or two people playing dual roles.

If the overall group is fairly small and the setting informal, the facilitator can simply suggest appropriate group roles and then allow the team to determine who will fill them. With a larger group (30 or more) and in a more formal workshop setting, much time and confusion is saved if the facilitator simply assigns group roles based on the suits of the card (*e.g.*, hearts serve as leaders, clubs as recorders, and diamonds as reporters).

For a case such as "Betty Miles's Worst Nightmare," 20 to 30 minutes of small-group discussion should be sufficient to allow exploration of the assigned focus questions and preparation for a whole-group report-out.

As with other cooperative learning tasks, it is always important to assign a sponge or extension activity for groups that work more rapidly than others. Thus, each group must prepare for a report-out on their own question, an activity based either on preassigned roles or on the idea that any of the group members can serve as reporter when called upon. Participants should be told, however, that as time permits, their teams should explore other focus questions, enabling them to relate more directly to the other report-outs. The facilitator should emphasize that this cooperative guideline is particularly important in a classroom setting to insure on-task behavior and to discourage students from rushing through an assignment ("blowing it off," in modern parlance) with the idea that they are then free to do other things.

Facilitators should make all of these directives crystal clear, often distributing them in writing to each group as well as projecting them on an overhead. For example, the seven focus questions should be given to each participant: If the "Betty Miles" case is mailed ahead, then extra copies of the case and the focus questions should be available at the workshop. When the focus questions are assigned to each newly formed group, the facilitator should reinforce the verbal directives with the visual aid of a transparency marking pen designating the question each team will address (*e.g.*, all teams: Questions 1 and 2; Teams 1 and 6: Question 3; Teams 2 and 7: Question 4, etc.). If the size of the overall group is known beforehand, then these handouts and transparencies can be prepared ahead of time. Less structured group work often falters because participants waste much of their allotted time puzzling over the instructions: "What did she tell us to do?" and/or "Why do we need to talk about another focus questions?" and/or "Does it matter which other one we choose?"

Because case studies often have no right or wrong solutions, closing remarks are particularly important. Facilitators need to monitor their time carefully so that this crucial segment of the workshop is lively, but unhurried. Generally, facilitators should allow about five minutes per report-out and less if the groups are highly focused and well-prepared.

Three procedures work well for closing report-outs. If the overall group is small and informal, then the reporters can simply rise and give an oral summary of the deliberations of their teams. This format has the advantage of following the K.I.S.S. principle, not a bad thing to remember when conducting a cooperative workshop. With larger groups, facilitators can give each team a clean sheet of acetate and a transparency marking pen and encourage the reporters to use visual prompts from the front of the room. Similarly, they can distribute flip chart paper and large markers for the final report-outs. This practice has the advantage of fostering team cohesion, because it usually takes at least two people to hold up the flip chart paper or to tape it to a wall.

If two teams worked on the same focus questions, it is important to encourage two report-outs but to discourage repetition. Another good practice is reversing the order in which groups report. For example, teams 1 and 6 can report on Question 3, but teams 7 and 2 (reversing the numerical expectation) can report on Question 4.

It is extremely important for the facilitator to provide official validation in a closing summary, both for the content and the process of the teams' work. The summary need not be long. It is a good practice to repeat, preferably in a congratulatory or even humorous format—avoiding tedious repetition—the advice the teams have given Betty Miles. It is also useful to process the cooperative experience, particularly if one hopes that the participants will translate their case experience at the workshop into active classroom practice. If all has gone well, the teammates will be shaking hands and leaving the workshop session with new knowledge, skills, and friends.

Rethinking the Facilitator's Role

In a traditional whole-group case study discussion, the facilitator is center-stage, visibly controlling the flow and the content of the discussion. Although good facilitators always encourage participant interactions, often by deliberately asking for responses to specific comments, their presence tends to dominate. Sometimes participants recall, "Wow! What a great discussion that was! What a great case teacher Dr. X is!" Sometimes they forget—unfortunately—the content and specific points of the discussion.

With a cooperative case approach, the facilitator's role is no less important but is often less obvious. The participants play a more direct, interactive role within their structured small groups. They are therefore more likely to remember what transpires, particularly their own contributions. The facilitator essentially plays three critical roles: (1) planner; (2) workshop manager; and (3) group monitor.

Much up-front planning is involved. Facilitators must obviously select the appropriate case, determine—if appropriate—the focus questions, and disseminate material ahead of time when possible. Based on the size of the group and other factors, they must coordinate a facilitation strategy that includes group formation (method, size, and seamless movement); focus question assignments including the format for group report-outs; workshop management techniques; and suitable closure methods. They must also have prepared the workshop handouts, overhead transparencies, and any needed supplies, such as blank acetate sheets or flip chart paper and markers.

Before the various groups begin their discussions, as suggested earlier, facilitators must make crystal clear the case guidelines, procedural instructions, and rationale.

Furthermore, depending on the size of the overall group, they may want to establish a quiet signal of some sort to bring teams back to full attention. Often a raised hand works well. Whenever participants see the facilitator's raised hand, they finish their sentence, raise their own hand, and direct their teammates' attention to the quiet signal. Using this technique, an entire room full of participants can come to attention in a matter of seconds. It is usually a good idea to good-naturedly ask participants to practice the raised hand signal before the discussion begins; otherwise, the procedure seems awkward and possibly childish. Some facilitators also augment the raised hand with some sort of auditory signal, though such devices—bells or timers—should be used cautiously. They can annoy some participants.

Probably the facilitator's most important role is monitoring the groups as they discuss the case. They should do so whenever possible by sitting down among the groups, largely as silent observers but prepared to contribute if participants have questions or if the discussion takes a counterproductive turn. This monitoring role pays enormous dividends: (1) it builds good will because the workshop participants feel that the facilitator is genuinely interested in their ideas; (2) it helps the facilitator identify any problem areas in content or process; (3) it allows the facilitator to monitor the teams' progress so that times can be adjusted, if feasible, to allow more or less team discussion; (4) it enables the facilitator to get to know participants in a far more personal way than could ever occur with an intervening podium; and (5) it is far more interesting and rewarding for the facilitators themselves.

Conclusion

The power of cases, like the power of "stories," is well-known. They bring immediacy and reality to potentially theoretical material. They stimulate in-depth, collaborative problem-solving and thought-provoking context-specific discussions. Perhaps best of all, they offer opportunities for active, experiential learning.

Similarly, the power of cooperative learning techniques has been well-documented by both researchers and practitioners. Structured small group work increases achievement, builds harmonious bridges among diverse participants, increases self-esteem by making certain that all contributions are valued, and develops important critical thinking and interpersonal skills vitally needed for today's workplace.

Using cooperative learning techniques to facilitate case discussions results in the best of all possible worlds. When a case like "Betty Miles's Worst Nightmare" deals with the subject of cooperative learning, then it is only natural to model the process as the case unfolds. Thus, participants can leave a cooperative case discussion with both the knowledge and the skills to conduct similar case discussions in their own classrooms.

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APPENDIX A

BETTY MILES'S WORST NIGHTMARE: A COOPERATIVE LEARNING DILEMMA

"Hi, I'm Betty Miles," smiled the tall, dark-haired instructor near the door. "Welcome to Modern Children's Literature."

Students clutching *Charlotte's Web* and other weighty tomes, some glancing nervously at their watches, scurried into the classroom, eying the orderly desks arrayed with thick packets of materials. As the greetings continued, they arranged their book bags, purses, and notebooks, and most of them began thumbing through the 13-page syllabus. After a few minutes, they noticed the course information neatly printed on the board with the instructor's name and the instructions asking them to complete a personal data sheet included with the syllabus material.

At 1:05 p.m. when 24 students were in place, Betty Miles walked to the front of the room and called the class to order.

"Are the brothers Grimm too grim for children?" she asked rhetorically. "Do you want your pre-teen reading *Dinky Hocker Shoots Smack*? This semester we'll be exploring these and other issues in the far-from-childish world of children's literature. Before we begin our discussions, however, I'd like us to get better acquainted. If you haven't already done so, could you please complete the pink Personal Data Sheet on top of your syllabus while I put the evening's agenda on the board. Also, please be prepared to move to a different seat in five minutes."

Several students looked puzzled, but most dutifully scribbled on their pink sheets. Of the 24 students, all but six were women, ranging in age from fresh-faced teenagers to a grandmotherly-type sitting in the back row. One of the males, a short, soft-featured man in his early 30s, sported a single gold earring.

"As you can see by the agenda," said Betty, "we will now begin with an icebreaker called the three-step interview. After that, we'll cover the course objectives and requirements, and then we'll begin our exploration of trends and issues in children's literature. We'll conclude promptly at 1:50 p.m. Are there any questions about what we'll do today?"

After waiting expectantly but finding no hands raised, Betty explained the interview process. "I want each of you to identify someone in the room who seems unlike you, someone perhaps of a different gender, age, or race. The person with the shortest hair will begin by asking interview questions of the other partner. I've put four suggested questions on the board. The most important are 'Why are you taking this course? What do you hope to get out of it?' Interview for two minutes. Then, when I ring this little bell" —she demonstrated it— "switch roles and have the other person ask the same questions. Then, when you hear the bell again, each pair should find another pair, making a foursome. For the next five minutes, introduce your partners to the group so that you all know each other by the end of the session. Don't try to repeat all you have learned during the pair introduction. Just concentrate on the most interesting points. Are the instructions clear?" Betty looked around. "Okay, begin."

The room filled with milling people suddenly engaged in animated conversations. Betty moved skillfully around the room, making certain that each person had a partner. About halfway through the exercise three students straggled in, but she carefully paired two of them and integrated the third into a circle of four just forming.

As the time expired, Betty rang the bell, but the room was still filled with noise and laughter.

Betty, anticipating this response, now flicked the lights and finally brought the class to attention.

"We need a quiet signal," she announced, "to bring order from anarchy because we'll be working in groups a lot this semester. It could be anything that will bring you to attention, but we need to create a ripple effect. For example, if you choose a raised hand, whenever one of you sees a hand raised, you need to finish your sentence and raise your hand. The room can come to order that way in less than 30 seconds."

"A raised hand seems too childish," said a tall, blond girl in a checked sundress. "How about flashing the 'V' for victory sign?

"That's a good idea," chimed another.

"Ok, if we're in agreement," said Betty. "We'll make that our signal. Often, I'll use both the victory sign and the bell. Please stay with your new team and let's begin our discussion of the syllabus."

Betty carefully explained all aspects of the course, including the journal assignments, the reading cards due every third class period, the chapter reading quizzes, and the book shares. Students asked few questions, but one studious-looking girl with glasses said, "Wow, this is a lot more work than I expected."

During the discussion, Betty emphasized the importance of teamwork and cooperation. "You will help each other learn," she emphasized. "Next week I'll put you in assigned learning teams where you can coach one another over the chapter material, but each of you will take the quizzes individually. Each of you on a high-achieving team will get a bonus point for each five points the team, as a whole, improves over the last quiz."

Betty glanced at her watch. "This team approach may be new to you. There's time, I think, for me to get your reactions. Let's do an exercise called 'Numbered Heads.' Could you please call out numbers—one-two-three-four—in your current teams so that everyone has a number. Go ahead—anyone can start." Class members glanced uncertainly at one another, but soon cries of "one-two-three-four" reverberated throughout the room.

Betty smiled approvingly. "Good work! I'd like you to take the next seven minutes to talk as a team about your feelings about the course. When you see the quiet signal or hear the bell, I'll ask about three of you to share your responses with the entire group. I will call on you by number to represent not your own opinion, but the team's consensus. You won't know which number I will call, so I hope that all of you will pay attention, summarizing the discussion so that you can present an accurate assessment of the team thinking. Those of you who rarely speak out in classes should feel more comfortable at giving a team response. Okay, begin."

The buzz sessions went smoothly. Betty moved rapidly among the groups, trying to remain as unobtrusive as possible. One group, in fact, was involved in such a heated discussion that they didn't notice her poised confidently in a desk outside the perimeter of their circle. As she listened to their remarks, however, Betty's confidence began to evaporate.

The man with the earring had obviously been speaking for several minutes: "I think it sucks," he said. "I'm here to get a good grade. Period. I don't want to have to wade through all this 'hold-me touch-me feel-me' crap. I'm sorry to sound so negative, but I paid good tuition money to get three credits of upper level English out of the way. This looked like an easy course, and I was willing to tolerate a little 'Mary Has a Little Lamb' garbage during lectures, but now I feel like I'm expected to spill my guts on the Phil Donahue show."

A plump, brown-eyed young woman spoke next: "Well, I don't mind cooperating. In fact, I think it's a good idea. In too many of my classes I've felt like a Social Security number. The grade is the problem for me. I heard the teacher say that the cooperative learning grade works like bonus points. It can't hurt us. But frankly, I'm skeptical. What if half you guys—you, for example, John—don't show up or you don't do the work. I'm stuck with freeloaders no matter how hard I work."

"Yeah, that bugs me, too," said another young woman. "In my last class the teacher dumped us in teams, and I did all the work. I wrote the whole group project on my own. The other students seemed to sense that I would do it. I don't know why I did it—the grade I guess—but I also liked our topic on homeless people. I didn't get any help from the teacher, either, and that bothered me even more. He seemed preoccupied with some survey he was conducting on the urban poor."

"The same stuff happened to me," said the woman in the sundress. "Group work, no matter what fancy name you give it, seems a cop out. The teacher doesn't have to do any work. She expects us to share resources and ideas. What if we can only pool our own ignorance? I'm really—uh—nervous about this class."

Betty slipped away to the next team, but her mind stayed focused on the conversation she had just overheard. What should she do? She immediately considered the question of whether or not she should she call on someone from the last team to share their responses? But she wondered, also, if other people in the class were feeling so negative. How could she turn this situation around?

FOCUS QUESTIONS

Betty Miles's Worst Nightmare: A Cooperative Learning Dilemma

1. What was your first impression of Betty's class?
2. Were the students justified in their opposition to group work?
3. Should Betty call on someone from the disgruntled group?
4. What can Betty do during this class session to turn this situation around?
5. What should she do the next class period?
6. What arguments in favor of structured small group work (cooperative learning) might convince dualistic thinkers to "buy into" it?
7. The next time Betty offers this course, what should she do differently?

APPENDIX B

BOB MILES'S WORST NIGHTMARE: A COOPERATIVE LEARNING DILEMMA

Written by Barbara Millis,
Assisted by Philip Cottell

"Hello, I'm Bob Miles," smiled the tall, slightly bald young instructor near the door. "Welcome to Accounting Ethics."

Students, some glancing nervously at their watches, scurried into the classroom, eying the orderly desks arrayed with thick packets of materials. As the greetings continued, they arranged their book bags, purses, and notebooks, and most of them began thumbing through the 13-page syllabus. After a few minutes, they noticed the course information neatly printed on the board with the instructor's name and the instructions asking them to complete a personal data sheet included with the syllabus material.

At 12:05 p.m. when 34 students were in place, Bob Miles walked to the front of the room and called the class to order.

"Pretend you just discovered a huge unfavorable material quality variance during a review of a cost accounting system that your company had implemented for another firm," Bob said. "If you report the variance, your company—which needs the business—stands to lose this firm as a client. You know you can cover up the variance by prorating it among several inventory accounts and cost of goods sold. You know also that your manager would want you to quietly take the latter course of action and might fire you if you 'whistle blow' instead. What would you do? This semester we'll be exploring these and other issues through 'real world' cases in the complex world of high finance."

He nodded cheerfully. "Before we begin our discussions, however, I'd like us to get better acquainted. If you haven't already done so, could you please complete the yellow Personal Data Sheet on top of your syllabus while I put the evening's agenda on the board. Also, please be prepared to move to a different seat in five minutes."

APPENDIX C

BONNIE MILES'S WORST NIGHTMARE: A COOPERATIVE LEARNING DILEMMA

Written by Barbara Millis,
Assisted by Carol Weiss, Eric Boyce, Marven Myers,
& Richard Penna

"Hello, I'm Bonnie Miles," smiled the tall, dark-haired instructor near the door. "Welcome to Pharmacy Law and Ethics."

Students, some glancing nervously at their watches, scurried into the classroom, eying the orderly desks arrayed with thick packets of materials. As the greetings continued, they arranged their backpacks, purses, and notebooks, and most of them began thumbing through the 13-page syllabus. After a few minutes, they noticed the course information neatly printed on the board with the instructor's name and the instructions asking them to complete a personal data sheet included with the syllabus material.

At 12:05 p.m. when 34 students were in place, Bonnie Miles walked to the front of the room and called the class to order.

"Welcome. I want you to pretend you are a pharmacist at a large teaching hospital. You find yourself in the position of dispensing either an experimental drug or a placebo to patients during a clinical trial. The physicians do not know which patients are receiving the placebos, but you do. You notice that those receiving the new drug are improving, but those receiving the placebo are deteriorating. Can you ethically continue to dispense these medications? Imagine now that you are taking a late night shift at a community pharmacy. One of your better-known patients comes in with a prescription you are convinced could cause him ill effects. You telephone the doctor, whom you don't know well, and he is visibly irritated by the interruption after working hours. As you explain your concern, he grows even more angry, telling you that you are presumptuous to question his authority. He finally demands that you either fill the prescription or send the patient elsewhere and hangs up. What do you do? And finally, a woman you know well socially has you fill a prescription for a drug you know is for AIDS. You also know that your best friend is having an affair with her. What are your ethical responsibilities, given the need for patient confidentiality? This semester we'll be exploring such 'real world' cases in order to understand and come to grips with the day-to-day responsibilities and ethical issues of pharmacists.

She nodded cheerfully. "Before we begin our discussions, however, I'd like us to get better acquainted. If you haven't already done so, could you please complete the yellow Personal Data Sheet on top of your syllabus while I put the evening's agenda on the board. Also, please be prepared to move to a different seat in five minutes."

The Value of Classroom Humor

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Beverley T. Amick

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This article provides a model workshop which faculty developers can present to make the case for faculty to use humor as an aid to student learning. The uses of humor, the potential for it to be harmful, the benefits of humor when effectively used, and guidelines for classroom use are addressed.

Introduction

> In the midst of challenging times, what the world needs now is laughter, sweet laughter. Humor and creativity are gifts we can give ourselves to survive and thrive in the 90s. Humor and creativity play a vital role in living, learning, working, and being healthy.

The preceding quotation, taken from the announcement for the 9th Annual International Conference on the Positive Power of Humor and Creativity (1994), states the position on humor held by the writers. We especially accept the proposition that humor plays a vital role in learning. This proposition is supported by research on teachers cited by Dean (1993). Dean comments that a study by Abramis (1991) found that teachers who used humor were rated more favorably by their students than were teachers who did not use humor. In this brief account we will first make the case for the use of humor as an aid to learning, and then present a design for a workshop on humor in the classroom.

Humor as an Aid to Learning

We begin the case by citing four beliefs we hold regarding humor and learning. Adapted from Kelly (1988), these beliefs are:

1. Humor can enhance and advance the educational process.
2. ...learning and laughter are compatible.
3. Used properly, humor improves the learning environment and fosters implementation of positive attitudes.
4. Humor, properly used, can be a very useful tool, technique, strategy, and attitude to make learning more enjoyable and worthwhile.

Key to these beliefs is the phrase, "properly used." We would be among the first to acknowledge that some humor may be hurtful or harmful to others, and that such humor has no place in the college classroom. Humor which makes fun of others, which involves put downs, or which stresses the superiority of ourselves should *not* be part of one's teaching repertoire. Rather, the type of humor which may be used most effectively in the college classroom is that which takes advantage of unexpected connections, i.e., humor based in incongruities.

Cornett (1986) has suggested that two theories underlie much of humor: 1) superiority, which suggests humans derive pleasure from seeing themselves as better off than others, and which we would argue is inappropriate for the classroom; and 2) incongruity, which involves unexpected connections, and which we would argue has many benefits for learning.

A cartoon which appears in *The Student Body: Great Cartoons from the Kappan*, edited by Bucheri, Hampton, and Voelker (1991) illustrates both theories at play. The cartoon by Dave Carpenter shows a professor speaking with a student about the student's results on a history test (the student's test paper shows an F) and remarking: "They say that history repeats itself—and in your case, it might be next semester." If a professor were to actually say that to a student, particularly if it were done in front of others, the superiority theory involving a put down would be demonstrated, and while the situation depicted might be humorous to some, the student involved would be most unlikely to find it funny. However, given the audience for whom the cartoon is intended, the cartoon makes good use of incongruity. The situation itself may be seen as incongruous in that no well-meaning professor would do this, although many may have felt like it at times. In addition, the play on the phrase "history repeats itself" involves incongruity through unexpected connections and requires some use of cognitive skill. This leads us to the definition of humor which we find most useful. The definition is proposed by Cornett (1986), who has written:

> Today definitions of humor focus mainly on cognitive aspects of what makes us laugh (language play and unlikely visual and auditory images). Yet remaining with us is the idea of humor as something that is ludicrous, incongruous, abnormal, and out-of-the ordinary. (p. 19)

This definition, with its emphasis on cognitive aspects, provides a particularly appropriate basis for making the case that humor can be an aid to learning. Humor which emphasizes cognitive aspects can have a number of positive effects when used in the learning environment. Westcott (1988) suggests that, among other things, humor can support effective communication, promote creative problem solving, and facilitate conflict management. If it is to have such positive effects, however, those electing to use humor in their classes will wish to consider Westcott's guidelines which include: 1) starting with one's self; 2) taking one's teaching seriously but one's self lightly; 3) being an observer, aware that one is surrounded by humor; 4) using humor as a support for competence rather than as a means for masking a lack of competence; and 5) using humor with sensitivity and care so that it is likely to be appreciated.

Humor, when used in this way, can have many benefits—particularly in one's relations with students. Dean (1993) notes that humor enlivens one's message and helps students to relax and pay attention. According to Dean this results in the following positive effects:

1. You show [students] that you are not afraid to let your guard down.
2. You convey that you are confident about their reactions to you.
3. You demonstrate that you trust them to value your spontaneity.

> 4. You reduce the anxiety so that [students] can better deal with the problems they are facing.
> 5. You help them to gain perspective on their problems and to see those problems in a broader context. (p. 214)

Given these potential benefits of humor, one wonders why instructors don't seem to use it more often, or don't seem to use it particularly well. No doubt there are many possible explanations as to why this is so, but some that appeal to us have been suggested by Paulson (1989). First, he notes that most of us have become far too serious, and that people don't seem to have nearly as much fun as they once did. In support of this explanation, he cites the fact that U.S. workers consume over 15 tons of aspirin a day. Secondly, he notes that many of us have lost touch with the importance of fun in the workplace. He writes:

> We move steadily through life with flat expressions on our faces. Take a minute and list [your colleagues] that look like they are in pain most of the day. Before you laugh too hard, think if others might put you on their list. It is dangerous to confuse professionalism with seriousness. You can take your [teaching] and your world seriously, and still take yourself lightly. (p. 1)

Perhaps the most cogent explanation for the failure of instructors to constructively use humor, however, is that it involves taking some risks. As Paulson comments, not all humor works. It can detract from serious discussion; it can be used to deflect valid criticism; it can lead to being criticized for "never taking anything seriously."

Obviously, these are things to be avoided, and many avoid them by never using humor. But in doing so, they also lose the benefits that humor can bring to the classroom. The key, in Paulson's words, is "balance." In an effort to address the issue of balance, we have designed a workshop which we believe to be useful in helping faculty to realize the potential value of humor while also developing their own potential for using humor in their classrooms.

A Workshop on Humor in the Classroom

The workshop we have employed to work with faculty on the use of humor is focused on three purposes, identified in a handbook distributed to participants (see Appendix B). These are: 1) to demonstrate the benefits of the *proper* use of humor in the college classroom; 2) to suggest the consequences of the *improper* use of humor in the classroom; and 3) to offer some general guides for the use of cases in teaching.

Designed to actively involve the participants, the workshop can be satisfactorily conducted within a 2 1/2 hour session. Although we have done it in less time by cutting or reducing some of the activities, it is better done in the longer time frame.

The workshop is structured for maximum participant involvement. (The workshop outline is in Appendix A.) As the people enter the workshop, they are given a copy of the handbook prepared by the writers (Appendix B). They are instructed to complete page 1, Check Your Sense of Humor. The checking of their sense of humor immediately focuses them on the topic. The handbook provides basic information and eliminates note taking. The workshop formally begins with a mini-lecture on who the leaders are, the objectives, and a statement of beliefs about humor.

Following this, the participants are placed in small groups, given a cartoon, and asked to discuss it using guide questions in the handbook. Groups share their cartoons and their analyses of why they are funny. The total group discussion which follows focuses on the place of humor in the classroom and what was learned about ourselves. Participants enjoy the discussion and frequently ask for cartoon copies.

The next activity is a mini-lecture in which theoretical information such as a definition of humor, the humor process, and benefits of humor are presented. At this point a case study on the uses of humor is distributed for silent reading (Appendix C). The purpose of the case study is to stimulate reflection and discussion about the appropriate use of humor in teaching. The participants return to the small groups and use the guide questions to discuss the case study. This is followed by whole-group discussion which focuses on the effective use of humor and how to advise faculty about its use.

The next activity, again done in small groups, involves sharing the answers to the questions on page 1 of the handbook. They are directed to share the responses to Item 2, "A funny thing that happened to me in the classroom was ___________." Laughter comes from the groups and they are eager to share their incidents with the total group. Discussion is then held on the potential of these incidents to serve as a basis for case studies. The session closes with a presentation of guidelines for effective use of humor. Frequently, participants are reluctant to leave and often remain to discuss the issues with each other and/or with the workshop leaders.

Summary and Conclusions

Our experience with this workshop has been very satisfying, and the feedback received has been quite positive. For example, the last time the workshop was conducted, results on the evaluation form revealed that 16 of the 17 participants (94.1%) agreed or strongly agreed (i.e., rated 4 or 5) with the statement, "This session had fresh, significant perspectives of value"; while all 17 or 100.0% agreed or strongly agreed with the statement, "The handouts/ supplementary materials were a valuable addition to the session" and that "Considering everything, this presentation was rewarding and worthwhile." Written comments for the session included: "Great group!" "Excellent!" "The discussion was very stimulating. I learned and enjoyed." Positive reactions were also evidenced at a prior workshop by a suggestion that we "Take this show on the road."

These positive reactions are due in part, we believe, to the fact that this is not a topic that has been very seriously examined for its potential use as an aid to learning, and it is, therefore, a new area of exploration for many.

We also believe it is successful because we do not emphasize being funny (none of the writers is a particularly noteworthy comedian), but rather, on having fun. In the words of Lawrence J. Peter and Bill Dana, as cited by Paulson (1989), we ask our participants to:

> Realize that a sense of humor is deeper than laughter, more satisfying than comedy and delivers more rewards than merely being entertaining. A sense of humor sees the fun in everyday experiences. It is more important to have fun than it is to be funny.

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APPENDIX A
Outline for Workshop

Humor in the Classroom

Topic/Activity — Approximate Time

I. Pre-prep — 10 minutes

Upon entering participants are given a handbook prepared by the writers, and asked to take the "exam" on page 1.

II. Introduction — 15 minutes

In a brief mini-lecture we indicate:

- A. Who we are; what we are not
- B. Statement of purposes
  Cover page of handbook
- C. Statement of beliefs
  Page 2 of handbook

III. Humor and cartoons — 25 minutes

- A. Participants are placed in small groups (3 to 5 persons) and each group receives a copy of a different cartoon (selected by the presenter - see page 12 in handbook for cartoon sources). Groups are asked to discuss their cartoons by addressing the questions on page 3 of the handbook.
- B. Each group reports on its cartoon. (Copy of each cartoon is shown on overhead).
- C. Whole group discussion then takes place focussing on what we've learned about ourselves and about humor and its place in the classroom based on this activity.

IV. What have we learned about humor? — 20 minutes

"Piggybacking" on the preceding discussion a mini-lecture using overheads and pages 4 through 7 of

the handbook addresses the following:
A definition of humor
Humor's three-step process
Two theories of humor
Benefits of using humor

V. Case study 40 minutes

A. A brief (2 pages) case study entitled "The Good, The Bad, and The Ugly," dealing with uses of humor is distributed and participants read it silently. (For a copy of the case study see Appendix C.)
B. The case study is discussed in small groups, using a discussion guide attached to the case study.
C. A whole group discussion of the case study follows.

VI. Sharing incidents for cases 25 minutes

A. In their small groups, individuals are asked to return to the "exam" taken upon entry (see I) and to share their comments, especially on item 2, "A funny thing that happened to me in the classroom was ____________________."
B. Each group then selects one incident to be shared with the total group.
C. Incidents are shared and their potential as bases for case studies is discussed.

VII. Closure 15 minutes

A. Guidelines for effective use of humor (page 9 of the handbook)
B. The Common Sense Commandments of humor (page 11 of the handbook)
C. Sources of material (page 12 of handbook)

Total Time 150 minutes

APPENDIX B
Handbook for Workshop on Humor in the Classroom

Cover Page

The Value of Classroom Humor: A Case Study

A Workshop Designed to:

1. Demonstrate the benefits of the *proper* use of humor in the classroom.
2. Suggest the consequences of the *improper* use of humor in the classroom
3. Offer some general guides on the use of cases in teaching.

* Each page in this handbook was printed in large type and overheads were made of each page. For purposes of this article, the print has been reduced and pages "doubled up."

Page 1

Check Your Sense of Humor

1. On a 1 to 10 scale, my sense of humor is __________. (Note 10 as excellent and 1 as nonexistent).
2. A funny thing that happened to me in the classroom was ________ ____.
3. I laughed until I cried when ______________________________ ____.
4. My laugh could be described as __________________________ ____.
5. I hate it when someone laughs when _______________________ ____.

Adapted from Cornett, 1986.

Page 2

Our Beliefs Re: Humor in the Classroom

1. "Humor can enhance and advance the educational process."
2. "...learning and laughter are compatible."
3. "*Used properly*, humor improves the learning environment and fosters implementation of positive attitudes."
4. "Humor...*properly used*, can be a very useful tool, technique, strategy, and attitude to make learning more enjoyable and worthwhile."

From Kelly, 1988.

Page 3

Discussion Questions for Cartoon

1. Do you find this humorous?
2. Why or why not?
3. What must you "bring" to the cartoon to see the humor?
4. Other thoughts or reactions.

Page 4

Humor Defined

"Today definitions of humor focus mainly on cognitive aspects of what makes us laugh (language play and unlikely visual and auditory images). Yet remaining with us is the idea of humor as something that is ludicrous, incongruous, abnormal, and out-of-the-ordinary."

From Cornett, 1986.

Page 5

Humor's Three-Step Process

1. Arousal
2. Problem Solving
3. Resolution

From Cornett, 1986.

Page 6

Two Theories of Humor

1. Superiority -Humans derive pleasure from seeing themselves as better off than others.
2. Incongruity -Unexpected connections.

From Cornett, 1986.

Page 7

Benefits of Using Humor

"If your message is worthwhile but boring, the chances are that it will not be heard, understood, and remembered. Humor enlivens your message and helps [students] to relax and pay attention."

1. You show [students] that you are not afraid to let your guard down.
2. You convey that you are confident about their reactions to you.
3. You demonstrate that you trust them to value your spontaneity.
4. You reduce anxiety so the [students] can better deal with the problems they are facing.
5. You help them to gain perspective on their problems and to see those problems in a broader context.

Adapted from Dean, 1993.

Page 8

Some Considerations When Preparing or Using a Case

1. Necessary background information
2. Context - A real and recognizable situation
3. A dilemma of some complexity
4. Requires reflective thought

Adapted from Materials provided
by Case Study Workshops.

Page 9

Guidelines for Effective Use of Humor

1. Start with yourself....
2. Be able to take your work seriously but yourself lightly...probably the best source of humor is personal experience.
3. Be an observer. Be aware that you are surrounded by humor and notice that humor.
4. Think of humor as being of two kinds—public and private....
5. Use humor as a support for competence rather than as a means of masking a lack of competence.
6. Use humor with sensitivity and care so that it is likely to be appreciated.
   - Make fun of yourself - not others
   - Laugh with people - not at them
   - Avoid ethnic put downs
   - Avoid sexist put downs

Adapted from Westcott, 1988.

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The Last Word

Plato once said, "Do not train students to learn by force and harshness; but direct them to it by what amuses their minds so that you may be the better able to discover with accuracy the peculiar bent of the genius of each."

From Kelly, 1988.

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The (Common) Sense Commandments...of Humor

1. It is important to take your job seriously...and yourself lightly. There is a big difference between being "serious" and being "solemn."

2. Laughter is the shortest distance between two people. (Victor Borge)
3. There is a direct relationship between the funny line and the bottom line.
4. You can't help getting older...but you can help getting old. (George Burns)
5. When humor goes, there goes civilization. (Erma Bombeck)
6. Humor is our greatest national resource which must be preserved at all costs. (James Thurber)
7. Love may make the world go 'round, but laughter keeps us from getting dizzy. (Donald Zochert)
8. Humor is a proof of faith. (Charles M. Schulz)
9. You grow up the day you have your first real laugh—at yourself. (Ethel Barrymore)
10. Misery loves company...but laughter loves it even more! Ye shall go forth and multiply mirth and give birth to creativity.

From Mirth Certificate. The Humor Project, Inc.
Saratoga Springs, NY

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Annual Conference

The Humor Project, Inc., 100 Spring St., Saratoga Springs, NY 12866. Purchasers from this Project are awarded a MIRTH CERTIFICATE which lists "The Common Sense Commandments...of Humor."

APPENDIX C
Case Study

The Good, the Bad and the Ugly

(Productive, nonproductive, and counterproductive uses of humor)

Professor Yenolab, an experienced teacher (seven years in the English Department, two sections of Freshman composition, one section on the modern novel, and a senior seminar) has come to a mentor for advice and the following dialogue ensues:

Professor: I just finished reviewing my student evaluations for this semester and they were "all over the lot," ranging from "Best class I've had" to "A so-so class" to "This was a terrible experience," with, I'm sad to say, more in the so-so and terrible categories than I've ever had before.

Mentor: Did this occur more in one particular section?

Professor: No, that's what bothers me. It was pretty well across all sections with perhaps a few more negative comments from the freshman composition classes.

Mentor: Uh-huh.

Professor: I've always thought of myself as a pretty good teacher, reasonably well liked by my students. I work hard to make my classes lively and fun, and I just don't understand what happened this semester.

Mentor: Tell me what you do to make your classes lively and fun.

Professor: Well, for one thing I try to use humor a lot. I write humorous comments on students' papers, I insert jokes in my lectures, I pick up on incidents that are humorous, I use humorous examples to make a point—I don't know—I think learning should be fun and I try to make it so.

Mentor: Uh-huh. Can you tell me more about your use of humor?

Professor: Sure. Sometimes I plan for it—building it into my presentation. Other times it just happens—something comes up in class that I think is funny, and I build on it.

Mentor: Can you give me some examples?

Professor: Well, O.K. When I first meet with a class I like to try to set a tone that lets them know I'm in charge but also lets them know that I'm easy going and approachable, so I might kiddingly say to the class, "You're no doubt familiar with the saying, 'A little learning is a dangerous thing'—well you needn't worry—you're all perfectly safe."

Or when I get ready to hand back an exam I have a cartoon I like to show that I think relieves some of the anxiety. The cartoon shows a professor with a stack of papers in hand standing before a class saying, "Before I hand back your tests, I'd just like to tell you how nice it is to know that in today's atmosphere of high-pressured competition, there are still students who don't give a damn about grades."

Mentor: Umm. How do the students usually respond to these?

Professor: Some laugh, but I don't seem to get the response I used to. I think kids are too serious these days.

Mentor: Yes, well...These would seem to be examples of planned use of humor. Can you give me an example of something spontaneous—a situation that you built on as you said earlier?

Professor: Let me think. Oh yeah, here's one. I had the class working in small groups—each group responding to a set of questions on homonyms or homophones. One group asked what I was looking for in one of my questions involving the use of "manner" and "manor." I replied, "beats me," to which one of the group responded, "Wouldn't I like to." Knowing the student well and that the comment was meant jokingly I laughed and it led to a whole class discussion of the use of words with more than one meaning, use of context and related topics.

Mentor: Umm, yes. Well, let's see—where are we now?

Discussion Guide

In your group discuss your reactions to this dialogue and where you think "they are now." In your discussion you *may* wish to consider some of the following:

1. How would you categorize the humor in each instance (superiority, incongruity, a combination)? Could the professor's use of humor have been a factor in the student evaluations? If so, in what way?

2. What were the probable consequences of the use of humor in each of the instances cited. Why do you think so?
3. How would you advise Professor Yenolab?

Section V

POD Values: Reflections from the 1993 Conference

The 1993 conference theme, "Unveiling Inherent Values, Invigorating Values Inquiry in Classrooms, Curricula, and Campus Life" was addressed in the three plenary sessions at the conference. Johnnella Butler's, "Report Card on Diversity," is included in section II of this volume. Bill Berquist's and Kathleen McGrory's presentations were so intimately related to the audience at the conference that I have included them here in that personal, spoken format.

Bill Berquist, who served for one hour as the first executive director of POD, began his remarks by refreshing our memories about the beginnings of POD. He talks about the planning of an early 1970's conference at Wingspread which brought together professionals involved with faculty, instructional, and organizational development. The conference participants formed a new organization, the Professional and Organizational Development Network in Higher Education, and elected Joan North as the first "real" executive director.

In his further remarks Berquist describes four academic cultures all or several of which may exist in an institution. Berquist goes on to unveil the unconscious values embedded in each of the cultures which helps us to understand the interactions among those cultures within an institution. He suggests that we create dialogues from the discussions around equity and social justice in our institutions , that we "practice what we preach by listening more carefully and attempting to understand and more fully appreciate the rich and complex values associated with each of the four cultures of our contemporary colleges and universities."

Kathleen McGrory, Executive Director of the Society for Values in Higher Education, spent the 1993 conference listening to POD members and attending sessions to get a sense of the values of POD. In her capstone address she presented "An Outsider's View of POD Values—and of POD's Value to the Academy."

I was happy to hear that Dr. McGrory found that our values, as stated in the POD Mission Statement, do match our behaviors. According to McGrory, POD's concerns "mirror the national concerns of higher education today." In conclusion she challenges us to, "Let the leadership of higher education know that [we] are a major institutional resource."

Unconscious Values Within Four Academic Cultures:

An Address Given At The 1994 POD Annual Conference

William Bergquist

It's wonderful being back to POD after an eight year hiatus. The POD Program Committee wheeled me out at the 10th anniversary of POD in 1986 to see if I was still alive. It was a real thrill for me at that meeting, for I had the opportunity to become reacquainted with old friends and new people. When I arrived at Lake Delavan (the site of the conference), I realized that as a child, I spent many wonderful weekends on this lake. As a result, I was often distracted during this conference. I kept reliving my childhood memories at Lake Delavan as well as my early years in the field of faculty and professional development. Rochester Minnesota is brand new for me, so if I'm not very coherent today, I have no recourse to childhood nostalgia — though as a child I did spend many summers at one of the many lakes in Northern Minnesota. I don't think Rochester is close enough, however, to use this as an excuse!

The Origins Of POD

It is indeed exciting to be speaking at POD — for after 18 years I still take great pleasure in witnessing the exceptional progress of this organization. I was asked to say a few brief word about the founding of POD, having been present at its inception as an idea and later as it became a reality. POD was conceived in an office in Washington, D.C. by three people — two of whom you may not have even heard of: Gary Quehl and Dyke Vermillye. I was fortunate to be the third party at this meeting. I want to identify Gary and Dyke because they would be very pleased with this turnout today. Both of these men were extraordinary, visionary leaders in American higher education during the 1970s. At the time Dyke was President of the American Association for Higher Education and Gary was serving as President of the Council for the Advancement of Small Colleges (later renamed the Council of Independent Colleges).

These two men listened to a brash young educator (myself) talk about the new field called Faculty Development. Both Quehl and Vermillye had already sponsored specific faculty development programs, so I had no problem convincing them that this was an important new venture in American higher education. I suggested that they convene a national conference on this topic. They both agreed, and a meeting was planned for several months later at a lovely conference center called Wingspread (a Frank Lloyd Wright-designed home in Racine Wisconsin, that was originally built by the Johnson family of wax fame, who later turned it into a conference center).

Probably the critical decision made early on in planning for that conference concerned who would be invited. One of the people we talked about generated a fair amount of debate. We weren't sure whether to invite Bob Diamond from Syracuse University (a leading spokesperson for the field of instructional development) since, strictly speaking, he wasn't doing "faculty development." We weren't sure if we should bring Faculty and Instructional Development together. Thank goodness we did. Bob Diamond is here today and has played an important role in ensuring that these two fields interact.

At a second planning meeting another person was invited: Jack Lindquist. Jack is the one who added the "O" to POD. Jack said that the Wingspread Conference should consider not just faculty and instructional development, but also organization development. I want to acknowledge Jack Lindquist and his extraordinary contributions to this national association and to the field of organization development in higher education. He died much too early in life and his absence at this meeting is a painful reminder of just how important he was as a colleague and friend for many of us.

The notion of starting a national association was offered by many participants at the Wingspread Conference. By the end of the third and last day of that conference, considerable attention was given to the formation of POD. I'm very pleased to see that this national association has continued under the leadership of many different men and women. I look at the list of executive directors of POD and find the names of some people who were in attendance at Wingspread. However, many of the directors have joined POD since these founding years. Just for the record, by the way, you should know that the first Executive Director of POD was left off the list — that person being myself. I was executive director for approximately one hour. Every one (including myself) looked at me after my first hour of leadership and stated in unison that: "this man can't be our Executive Director." Fortunately, we picked Joan North instead. She became the first "real" Executive Director. I want it to be known, however, as a footnote to the history of POD, that there was someone else for one hour who served as executive director!

The Unconscious Dimension Of Values In Academic Cultures

On a more serious note, I was asked to talk with you today about a book I recently wrote called "The Four Cultures of The Academy." While I will summarize several of the conclusions I reached in writing this book, I want to move a bit beyond these conclusions, partly because some of you are already familiar with the book and several of you have heard me speak much too often on this topic. Partly, however, I want to move beyond the confines of the book in order to focus on two of the themes of this conference. First, I suspect that many of you are representative of one of the four cultures that I describe in the book. I call it the Developmental Culture. Development, after all, is what this organization is all about. I want to focus, therefore, on this culture.

Second, I was pleased to read about the emphasis on values at this conference. One of the areas I wanted to focus on, therefore, is what I call "the unconscious values" of the four cultures. I hesitate in using the term "unconscious." Because I am a psychologist, many of you may be assuming that I'm going to be talking about academic cultures in psychoanalytic terms — perhaps providing a Freudian analysis of bizarre happenings in American higher education. I want instead to use the term as Michael Polanyi (1967) might use it in reference to "tacit knowledge." Polanyi writes about our ability to recognize the faces of people we haven't seen for a long time and our ability to recognize that another person has changed his or her physical appearance, without being able to specify what this change is. We recognize other people, yet may not be able to remember their names or even when or where we have seen them before. We also can recognize that something has changed, but we don't know whether the person has lost or gained weight, changed their hair style or color, or gotten rid of (or grown) a beard.

Polanyi suggests we have a visual template that we apply in greeting a person. We match our "tacitly" (unconsciously) held template with this person's visual appearance and determine if we know this person: is there is a rough match between our template and this person's visual appearance? If there is a rough match, then we determine the extent to which this person still matches this template. For example, when my wife, Kathleen, comes home there will usually be an immediate and "unconscious" (or tacit) match between my template and her physical appearance. However, on occasion, there is not an immediate match and I tacitly know that something is different. Something has changed. I don't know whether she's excited or worried about something (which influences her facial expression) or if she has changed her hair style or worn a new dress or new piece of jewelry. I know something's different, but I don't know what it is. After a brief period of time, I can usually figure out what the mismatch is between my template and Kathleen's appearance. If I can't, then I must ask sheepishly what has changed.

Along with Michael Polanyi, I suggest that we tacitly hold many templates of the world in which we live and work. We continually match not only our facial templates, but also templates about leadership, communication, supervision, teaching and learning, and many other aspects of organizational life in our colleges and universities. We know when something is "right" or "wrong" in our college or university, even if we can't immediately identify what it is that is right or wrong. We also know that something has changed, even if we're not immediately quite sure what the change is or how we feel about this change.

I propose that when we examine organizational values, and more particularly values that reside within certain academic cultures, we are looking at "tacit knowledge." We know that these values are present and profoundly influence our life and our attitudes regarding the organization in which we work, yet these values are often not directly known to us. In other words, these values often remain "unconscious." They serve as tacitly-held templates against which we measure the "rightness" and "wrongness" of behaviors in our organization and the extent to which things have changed in our organization.

Obviously, some of our values inform our decisions in quite conscious ways. Chris Argyris and Don Schon (Argyris and Schon, 1974; Argyris, 1982) speak of these as our "espoused" values. We say that something is important to us and we act in a manner that demonstrates this importance. In other cases, however, our decisions and our actions may be dictated (or at least influenced) by values that we have not explicitly espoused. These values, at some deep level, influence how we act in our organization, even if we may not be able to identify these values and even if these values may contradict other values that we have consciously acknowledged and publically espoused. Furthermore, when the cultures that we live in begin to change, we know they have changed. We know that the values in our organization are changing, but we're not quite sure what it is that changed or why it has changed. This is at the heart of what I have identified as the "unconscious" dimension of values that are prominent in our four academic cultures.

The Four Cultures Of The Academy: An Overview

I will move to my analysis of the unconscious dimensions of academic values by first briefly describing the four cultures that I have identified in my book. In *The Four Cultures of the Academy* (1992) I propose that there are four prominent cultures in most American colleges and universities. I use the word "culture" with some hesitation — much as I use the word "unconscious" with some trepidation. I realize that my anthropology friends sometimes wince when I talk about "culture." I risk abusing a term that is central to their discipline. I hope I am using the term in an appropriate manner though I recognize that the differences between cultures in academic institutions is not even remotely as profound as the differences between ethnic cultures found throughout the world.

In essence, I suggest that there are two deeply rooted cultures in American higher education, which I have labeled "collegial" and "managerial." In addition, I have identified two more contemporary cultures that emerged in reaction to these two dominant cultures. I have labeled these the "negotiating" and "developmental" cultures. Let me briefly describe each of these four cultures.

The Collegial Culture

One of the two basic cultures, which I call the "Collegial Culture," is rooted in Colonial times. It is found at the very beginning of American higher education. As most of you are probably aware, the first colleges in America — such as Harvard and Yale — were based on what's called the Oxbridge model (a blending of Oxford and Cambridge). However, there was one aspect that was different from Oxford and Cambridge. Part of the reason that the colonial academics formed the first American colleges was because they had inadequate libraries. They wisely decided that they could improve their own personal libraries by combining them with the private libraries of other academically-inclined colonialists. In order to put their library into a single building, they had to pay rent on the space, as well as provide heat and things like that. So, they formed colleges in order to raise money for the building in which they placed their joint library. This, in turn, meant that these early academicians had to bring at least a few students in to pay the bills.

Obviously, there were other motivations. The early colleges served as training institutes for the clergy, physicians, and lawyers. They also served as "finishing schools" for the future (upper class) leaders of our society. Nevertheless, from the first, there was a sense in the collegial culture that colleges are really there for the faculty. Students were needed to pay the rent and keep the lights on, but they certainly weren't really there as welcomed guests.

The other important factor to consider in defining the nature of the collegial culture is that there were elementary schools, but no high schools in the original colonial period in the United States. After elementary school, young people were expected to go out and get a job or at least help out in the family business. A few of the young men (and later young women) did come back for a college education. The young men became ministers, physicians, or lawyers. The young women became polished hostesses for their elite husbands. These were the people who went on to college. At a later time high schools were formed to serve primarily in the early years as preparatory schools for those who were going on to college.Thus, from the first, American colleges were formed independently of the elementary schools and prior to the high schools. We still have that gulf today in the difficult articulation between high school and college. In many ways it's a remnant from the colonial years.

By the middle of the nineteenth century there was a major expansion in American higher education that came with the Federal Land Grant act. Many of the major universities in the United States were formed through these land grants, which provided not only space for the new campuses but also revenues (through sale of some of the deeded land). At the time these universities were formed, the German research university was considered the epitome of quality in the field of higher education. Oxford and Cambridge were no longer considered the premier institutions — for the physical sciences and research (the heart of the German university) had taken over from the humanities (which were at the heart of the Oxbridge model).

Thus, in the middle of the nineteenth century many leaders and professors were brought over to the United States as consultants or as the founders of academic departments in the new universities. These German academicians came over to help create the new institutions and in doing so they helped to form the character of the American University. The German Research University was quite different in many ways from Oxford and Cambridge.

In the United States the Oxbridge and German subcultures merged. However, as in the case of the multiple dimensions of the other three cultures, several major contradictions exist between the Oxbridge and German models. Even in the 1990s, these two dimensions are not fully integrated in a single, coherent culture. Let me offer just one example of the inherent contradiction between these two subcultures. In the old Oxford-Cambridge model, science was at the bottom of the pecking order. The first science courses were not taught in America until the early years of the nineteenth century — and they were taught at West Point. Science courses were not taught in most colleges and universities because these disciplines were beneath the dignity of a "real" liberal arts college. There have obviously been some changes in terms of the status of sciences in our institutions. Today, the humanities often seem to be at the bottom of the pecking order. We can look to the impact of technology on our society as a partial reason for the radical change in the pecking order. However, the rise of the German research university model has also contributed to this change. Certainly the German Research University brought in a major infusion of support for the sciences. When I look at the Collegial Culture today, I think there is still tension between the Humanities and Liberal Arts (coming out of the Oxford-Cambridge model) and the Physical Sciences (coming out of the German Research University model). The fusion between these subcultures is still taking place.

The Managerial Culture

A second culture — that I have identified as "Managerial" — is quite different from the Collegial Culture. Like the Land Grant universities, the institutions from which this culture grew began in the middle of the nineteenth century. This culture came, not out of the Oxford-Cambridge model (which is primarily Protestant in origin), but, instead, out of the Catholic tradition in America. Many urban communities in the United States were just beginning to be established in the mid-nineteenth century. In many instances, these communities were composed primarily of recent immigrants from predominantly Catholic countries in Europe. The cathedral of the Catholic churches in these urban communities began providing a variety of services that were not yet being offered by public agencies (such as health care, child care, and education). It is very instructive to note how many human services in the United States were initially provided not by public institutions, but by the Catholic Church. Some of the first day care centers, schools, and human service centers came from the Catholic Church.

Initially, the Catholic Church provided elementary schools for its parishioners. As these children grew up, the church began to provide high schools, and eventually some of these children wanted a collegiate degree, so the Catholic Church began to provide college degree programs. In these Catholic colleges, leadership was provided not by the faculty or by professors-turned-academic-administrators (as in the case of the collegial culture), but rather by proven educational managers — typically men and women (in religious orders) who had already been successful high school administrators. The articulation between Catholic high schools and colleges was very effective, for they were all part of the same system in those days.

There was also a second component of the managerial culture: the junior and community college. As in the case of the Land Grant colleges and Catholic colleges, the junior colleges (later to become community colleges) were first formed in the second half of the nineteenth century in the United States. These colleges modeled themselves after neither Oxford-Cambridge nor the German Research University. Rather, they looked to the Catholic tradition of community-based service and the close articulation between high schools and colleges in the Catholic educational system. To this day we often find remnants of the old Catholic tradition in community colleges. For instance, there is a strong emphasis on hierarchy in what I call the Managerial Culture. Furthermore, both the Catholic institutions in the United States and community colleges display a strong emphasis on the examination of outcomes as well as a strong populist tradition.

The Collegial Culture has strong faculty emphasis while the Managerial Culture has generally a strong administrative bent. The primary career track toward academic leadership in the Collegial Culture is through faculty research and scholarship and through disciplinary affiliations. Conversely, academic leadership in the Managerial Culture comes primarily from faculty members moving up through departmental management to the positions of dean and vice president.

The Negotiating Culture

The third culture — what I have identified as "Negotiating" — has emerged in reaction to the powerful managerial culture. During the last twenty years many faculty have concluded that if they are going to be treated as employees, then they need to respond as employees. In a collegiate institution that is dominated by the Managerial Culture, faculty began to seriously consider collective bargaining to insure that their personal and professional welfare is taken into account.

The Negotiating Culture, however, is built on more than just collective bargaining. As in the case of the Collegial and Managerial Cultures, the Negotiating Culture is composed of two subcultures that are sometimes in conflict. In addition to collective bargaining, the Negotiating Culture is built on the major movement in which many of us participated during the sixties and seventies and (in many instances) the eighties and nineties: the movement toward greater equity and social justice (civil rights, feminism, gay and lesbian rights, access for the disabled, and so forth). Many faculty have been deeply involved during the past twenty years in issues of access and equity and in the creation of programs for people who are not from Northern European/American origins, for women, for disabled people, and so forth. All of this is wrapped together in what I have called the Negotiating Culture.

In this culture, influence occurs not primarily through either research or scholarship (as is the case with the Collegial Culture) nor through management and budgets (as in the case of the Managerial Culture), but rather through collective action.

The Developmental Culture

Much as the Negotiating Culture came out of the Managerial Culture; the fourth culture — what I call the Developmental Culture — has roots in (and was founded in reaction to) the Collegial Culture. Those of us who live primarily in the Developmental Culture appreciate the collaboration of the Collegial Culture; we appreciate the norms around rationality and deliberation. We also appreciate the early emphasis in the Oxbridge model on the overall education of students — what the early Oxbridge professors spoke of as "forming the moral character" of its students. On the other hand, we don't appreciate the heavy political processes, the infighting and the indifference to student welfare that we often find in the German Research University and in the Collegial Culture that emerged from the attempted combination of the Oxbridge and German Research models. As a result, a new systematic emphasis was placed, during the 1960s and 1970s, on comprehensive student development. This new emphasis represents one of the two subcultures of the Developmental Culture. The other emerging emphasis concerns faculty, professional, and administrative development — which emerged as all of you know from the recognition during the 1960s and 1970s that our colleges and universities had to change if they were to accommodate the new students and the new challenges of American higher education.So, we begin to find in the early 1970s that unusual meetings were held in places like Washington D.C. and the Wingspread Conference Center, and organizations such as POD were formed as counter-weights to the dominant collegial and managerial cultures and as alternatives to the newly emerging negotiating culture.

While many of us from the first were comfortable with both the student development and faculty/professional development subcultures of the Developmental Culture, some tension still remains between these two different emphases. Which of the two emphases should be considered primary: do we begin with faculty development or student development? Should faculty development always be geared toward issues of teaching and learning? Do we justify administrative development because of its ultimate impact on students or because of its more immediate impact on the administrative operations of the school and the morale of administrators and staff who work inside the college or university?

Interaction Among the Four Cultures

I propose that all four of these cultures exist in virtually every collegiate institution with which I have consulted and with every college, university, or graduate school of which I've been a member. Furthermore, I think it's essential, at least today, that all four of these cultures exist in every institution. When I look at institutions that are seriously in trouble, typically they're in trouble because they have successfully wiped out one of these cultures. Each of these cultures provides a valuable role in our contemporary colleges and universities and must be preserved.

Developmental Culture In Dialogue With The Other Three Cultures

I want to focus briefly on the strengths and weaknesses inherent in each culture. I will look at these factors from the perspective of the Developmental Culture and focus on the ways in which we, in the developmental culture, can best appreciate as well as challenge values that are embedded in those cultures that we are likely to perceive as alien or even antagonistic to our own cultural preferences.

The Collegial Culture

As a representative of the Developmental Culture, I greatly appreciate the broad-based participation that the Collegial Culture encourages. I have found it a bit ironic that corporate leaders come into our colleges and universities, preaching about "brand new" strategies — such as the notion of self-managed work teams, broad participation in Total Quality Management, and Continuous Improvement programs. I often feel like saying, "Folks, we've been doing that in higher education for many years — if anything we often have too much participation in our planning and problem-solving processes." The presidents and deans of our collegiate institutions often say (with considerable justification): "No. No. We've got enough participation. Go away. We don't need the encouragement of more participation. Broad-based participation is part of our problem, not the solution."

I firmly believe that the Collegial Culture has made American Higher Education an extraordinary and important part of our society, in large part because of this emphasis on broad-based participation. However, I wish the Collegial Culture were a bit more orderly — not quite so messy. I wish it wasn't so political. When Woodrow Wilson became President of the United States some people wondered whether his previous role as President of Princeton University was relevant to running affairs of state. Wilson was reported to have said something like: "After dealing with the politics of Princeton, I was surrounded by rank amateurs in Washington." The politics of our institutions are remarkably convoluted and complex. I want to say to my colleagues in the Collegial Culture: don't be quite as political and, most importantly, be more inclusive.

The important message for Total Quality Management, when it's working well in higher ed, is that the institution needs much broader participation in the decision making process. It helps break down the boundaries between faculty and staff, between faculty and administration. I think one of the major problems we now have, for those of us in our fifties and beyond, is to let loose of some of our control. In many instances, younger faculty members in our institutions have had to wait five or more years before they have much influence. Frankly, many are waiting for us to retire or die just so they can take over. I would suggest an alternative for those of us who are older and deeply entrenched in the collegial culture is to hand over some of our power and influence to the next generation of faculty in our institution.

A book that I recently coauthored on men and women in their fifties (Bergquist, Greenberg, and Klaum, 1993) suggests that the role of generativity is particularly important for those of us who have entered this decade of life. In our fifties, we are particularly inclined to be teachers or mentors (unless, as college teachers, we have already burned out on this role). We can move toward generativity by shifting out of positions of power in the collegial culture and moving into roles of facilitation, advisement, and wise counsellor. Such a shift is important for younger faculty as well as for our own psychological well-being.

The Managerial Culture

To my colleagues in the Managerial Culture, I say I appreciate your orderliness –– especially compared to the Collegial Culture. I appreciate your use of data. In our classrooms we're always espousing the importance of information and data. Yet, we know that faculty tend to be highly intuitive (as measured by the Myers-Briggs Type Indicator) and score very low on the sensing end of the Myers-Briggs scale. As faculty we tend to encourage our students to "pay attention to the data!" We inquire, "Did you do your reading? Do you have any facts to support that?" The intuitive faculty replies, "No! We haven't done a study, but we know it." I think it's useful that our colleagues in the Managerial Culture force us to gather some data.

One of the critical roles played by Bob Diamond and his colleagues in the Instructional Development field is that they serve as an effective bridge between the Managerial and Developmental cultures. Instructional development — like most of the other components of the managerial culture — is very student-oriented. It is very compatible with the student development subculture of the Development Culture (which came out of the student-oriented dimensions of the Oxbridge subculture). Because the subculture of faculty development originally came out of the faculty-oriented dimensions of Oxbridge and the German Research University subculture, its original advocates were often much too introspective and faculty-oriented. Ultimately, the student often got lost in many of our early faculty development efforts. For instance, many of my faculty development colleagues and I used to get very angry at the people at FIPSE (the Fund for the Improvement of Postsecondary Education — a federal funding agency) because, whenever we'd submit proposals for faculty development, they said, "What difference is this going to make in the life of students?" My colleagues and I would reply: "I don't know. It's for faculty!" They kept saying, "Your proposed program must have some impact on the students." The student orientation of FIPSE comes out of the Managerial Culture, and this orientation is to be commended — despite the objections of my faculty development colleagues and me.

Conversely, the Managerial Culture needs to be less rigid and less outcomes-oriented. One of the problems of the Managerial Culture is that it defines quality primarily in terms of outcomes and not enough in terms of process. I think members of the managerial culture need to be more collaborative. Total quality management does have several important messages for the Managerial Cultures within our colleges and universities, and most of these messages have to do with being more collaborative.

The Negotiating Culture

There's an interesting relationship between the Developmental Culture and the Negotiating Culture. One of the most intriguing questions for collective bargaining units, for instance, is: "As members of a faculty union, are we supposed to be in favor of faculty development, or against it?" A fair number of faculty unions in the United States are fully supportive of faculty development. They consider it part of their prerogative. On the other hand, many other faculty unions are opposed to faculty development because they consider it a slap in the face — another instance of their administration insensitively pushing programs down their throat or the administration saying that "you (the faculty) must improve" (rather than concluding that everyone must improve).

It is essential that more dialogue take place between the various faculty unions and organizations like POD. What would happen if POD were to cohost a conference with one of the major faculty unions? I want to say to my colleagues in the Negotiating Culture that I greatly appreciate your concern for equity. I think that's critical at this point in the history of American higher education. For those of us involved in professional, faculty, and instructional development, there is a provocative essay that was written many years ago by Goffman (1952) called "On Cooling the Mark Out." Goffman was studying carnivals and the way that those working in the carnivals manage the "marks" (customers like you and me). As the "marks" at a carnival, we spend money by participating in games such as throwing baseballs at six or more milk bottles that are stacked up at the other end of the booth. We throw baseballs at the milk bottles and find that they bounce off the bottles. At some point we realize that the bottles aren't just standing there; they're nailed down or hinged to the table! Someone probably has a lever, and he decides when they topple. We begin to get angry. Then someone comes up beside us, buys several tickets, and starts throwing balls at the milk bottles. This person also is not very successful. Finally, they speak to us, saying something like "This is crazy. Why don't we go off and have a beer or something together. Hey, I'll buy." They put their arm around us and off we go. We don't realize that these people are hired by the carnival. Their job is to cool off the mark. That is, they have learned how to cool us off when we get angry, so that we won't report the carnival to the local police.

One of the things we need to recognize as — developmental specialists and consultants — is that we often may be hired to cool the mark. That is, in our work in faculty development, instructional development, or organizational development, we need to be very careful because often there are legitimate grievances and differences of opinion from which we can divert attention in an effort to win our colleagues over to a more optimistic developmental perspective. Our colleagues in the Negotiating Culture teach us that there are conflicts in the organization that are appropriate because they have to do with the misallocation of resources, equity, and the distribution of power. Sometimes, when we're most successful, we have gathered a group of people together, and they've started feeling a little better about each other. They're not complaining as much. We need to be careful that we're not simply cooling the mark so that legitimate reform doesn't take place. I think our colleagues in the Negotiating Culture who may anger or frustrate us often are the people that are calling us to task about this issue of "cooling the mark."

Personal Values of the Four Cultures

I would now like to identify and briefly discuss the personal values that seem to be inherent in, or are at least closely associated with, each of the four cultures. I will try to identify some of the deep, underlying, and often unconscious or tacitly-held values of each culture. I will then turn, in conclusion, to an examination of group-based values in each culture.

The Collegial Culture

In terms of the basic values, I think the most important value associated with the Collegial Culture is *autonomy*. It is apparently very important to respond to the needs and interests of faculty in the Collegial Culture in terms of their need for autonomy. It's also important, however, to realize that in the Collegial Culture, autonomy can turn into indifference, particularly among faculty members in their late forties and fifties. As faculty members, we've often spent our entire professional lives looking for autonomy. Somehow, in our late-forties and into our fifties, we find that we've finally achieved that autonomy but now feel very vulnerable. We feel isolated from our colleagues.

As we grow older, we tend to experience a growing interest in community and connectedness to a larger society (though at the same time we may focus on a smaller group of friends, family members and colleagues) (Bergquist, Greenberg, and Klaum, 1993). Frequently, as faculty members, when a greater interest in community does emerge, we look for that community not inside our colleges and universities (which now in some sense seem alien), but outside the college. We look to our local church, our disciplinary association, or a local community volunteer agency for our sense of community and connection. Inside the college we often tend to feel indifferent. I think it's particularly interesting that one of the most respected contemporary counsellors in American Higher Education is Parker Palmer, who talks about the spiritual dimension and about community in higher education.

The Managerial Culture

In the Managerial Culture, the most important value has been *advancement* — moving up through the ranks. This is the classic managerial emphasis that we find in other sectors of American society. Unfortunately, this emphasis on advancement is often thwarted in the Managerial Culture because there's not much room for advancement in most colleges and universities. Upward mobility works in large corporations, but not in either small colleges or large universities. There's not much to be done. We've created a Managerial Culture in an institution that doesn't have much verticality. There's nowhere to go, so we hit the glass ceilings again and again in higher education.

Often we find men and women in the Managerial Culture who are in their early — or mid — forties. They've reached the top and there's nowhere else for them to go. I think a major challenge in higher education is to find an alternative to upward mobility. What about moving horizontally to other positions? What about new uses of sabbaticals for people in managerial positions? One of the finest university presidents I've ever worked with is Ernest Hartung, who was president at the University of Idaho when I was an Assistant Professor at this university. He took a sabbatical in the midst of his presidency. Hartung had been a biologist at the University of Rhode Island and decided (with his board) to take a year off in order to work for the state of Idaho on a major environmental project. He returned as the rejuvenated President of the University, having made a valuable contribution to the state in his report on the environment. We don't do enough with sabbaticals for people in leadership positions.

The Negotiating Culture

I think the primary value of the Negotiating Culture — and I mean it in a positive sense — is *power*. People need to have the appropriate amount of power within the institutions in which they work. The downside of that is often a form of nihilism, or a lose-lose kind of mentality: If I can't have the power, then no one will have the power. I fear that many times in the Negotiating Culture we break the backs of our collegiate institutions; we bring them to their knees in part because they don't listen to us.

Collaborations between the Developmental Culture and the Negotiating Culture are very important. As developmental advocates, many of us tend to be idealists and optimists. By contrast, advocates of the Negotiating Culture often are very pessimistic, and in their pessimism, they often can be very destructive. The two cultures tend to balance off each other, so that faculty members are appropriately realistic without losing their idealism and their sense of potential improvement in their institution.

Group Values Of The Four Cultures

In conclusion, I want to touch on a few of the values that exist at the group level in collegiate institutions.

The Collegial Culture

At the group level *coherence* is highly valued in the Collegial Culture. Faculty want to pull the political process together from out of chaos. There is a concept in chaos theory that I think is very appropriate as we look at the Collegial Culture — this is the notion of strange attractor. If we have a smooth surface with a very small dent, then dirt, water, or any other substance will tend to move toward that little dent. The dent gets deeper and deeper as these substances move into and out of the dent. Eventually the dent becomes a hole. Slight variation becomes a major variation. Small cracks become large potholes. Minor events eventually bring about profound change.

We have many strange attractors in the political processes of our colleges and universities. A small issue gradually begins to absorb all of the energy and attention of faculty in the institution. This issue soon distracts faculty from other more important matters. The political process becomes nothing more than an energy drain, a strange attractor. In his book on the dynamics of academic organizations, Birnbaum (1988) offers a very interesting change strategy called the "garbage can," which makes extensive use of the strange attractor phenomenon. In essence, if you want to change your institution, then bring some issue before the faculty that will absorb all of their attention — a nice meaty issue like parking or general education, an issue that has absolutely no resolution. You bring it before the faculty and the faculty will put all of their energy into this issue — many hours, many subcommittee hearings. While they're all working on this distracting issue — this strange attractor — you run around the edge of the issue and unilaterally initiate a project that you think is actually of some importance. No one on the faculty has the energy to move away from whatever the strange attractor (garbage can) issue is to address concerns associated with your pet project. I think that this is probably a very useful strategy, though perhaps a bit Machiavellian.

A variant on the garbage can strategy was developed by some of the people involved in the free speech movement at Berkeley. We should listen carefully to the reflections of these young men and women (many of whom are ourselves!), for as students of the sixties, we often changed academic organizations much more easily than we've changed them in more recent years, as faculty and administrators. Several of the student activists of the 1960s and 1970s noted that most bureaucratic policies and procedures are set up to prevent you from doing something. However, if you do what you want to do without asking for bureaucratic permission, then those people who want to stop you from doing it have to go through these same mechanisms to stop you. Thus the bureaucratic mechanisms that were set up to prevent you from doing something in the first place suddenly become your allies or your shield. By the time the bureaucrats and opposition leaders finally move through all the red tape to get you to stop doing whatever you've been doing, you've already finished. Then you simple say, "I'm sorry" or even "I'll never do that again." Several corporate consultants (who were probably the somewhat more radicalized activists of the sixties when they were younger) have captured the essence of this approach when they suggest that it is much easier to beg for forgiveness than to ask permission.

My sense is that this type of political, manipulative process tends to be very alien and offensive to most of us in the Developmental Culture. These political intrigues often eventually prevent our institutions from making thoughtful and successful decisions, much as the strategies used by the negotiating culture can be very destructive when not tempered by the more thoughtful (though sometimes naive) deliberations of the developmental and managerial cultures. Thus, an emphasis is placed on coherence in the Collegial Culture because the manipulations that are possible in this culture can shatter the unity and ultimately the very fabric of institutional life in a college or university that is dominated by this culture.

The Managerial Culture

I propose that *consensus* is at the heart of the group-oriented values espoused in the Managerial Culture. I think it often gets overlooked by those of us who do not primarily dwell in this culture. Unfortunately, when you have a movement towards consensus, you often have the creation of artificial agreements. Some of you know of the so-called "Abilene Paradox" that works so profoundly in our institutions. This paradox occurs when everyone in a group agrees to a particular course of action, though none of the group members individually believe that this is the best course. All members of the group go along with the nonpreferred course of action because they erroneously believe that other members of the group all support this choice.

Recently, I was working with the library system in a Midwest university that exemplifies this paradox. The head of the library said, "Well, my problem is that every time I present a new idea my staff put it down." I asked him for an example of an idea that had been dismissed by his staff. He mentioned one idea that the staff had "really put down." Incidentally, during my interviews with each of his 14 subordinants, I asked: "What do you think of this idea?" Inevitably each of the staff members indicated that: "I think it's a good idea, but the other people on this staff think it's really lousy." At the end of a meeting, in which I summarized the results of my interviews, I said: "By the way, did you know that everyone in this room supports this idea?" They all looked around at each other. I said, "One of you expressed some concerns about the idea, but indicated that he wasn't opposed to this idea." In this group, there was such a strong assumption that this is a place where new ideas aren't accepted. No one spoke up because no one wanted to be the only one supporting the boss's ideas. This exemplifies the manufacturing of artificial consent, an Abilene Paradox.

I think members of the higher education community are particularly vulnerable to this paradox because we are fearful of being considered a fool or of being exposed. This is an area where I think we can be particularly helpful as organization development consultants. We can challenge the assumption that everyone is against an idea, or, conversely, that everyone's for the idea.

The Negotiating Culture

I think the most important value in the Negotiating Culture is often one that is not clearly understood by many of us who are outside that culture. It is the notion of what I would call effective *confrontation*. Everyone must play their parts. I was reminded of this value in Erik Erikson's (1970) description of Gandhi's first strike in India. Gandhi's first nonviolent demonstration occurred in a mill that was run by a man with whom Gandhi had grown up. They had been close friends as children. The two men participate in the demonstrations each morning — each man leading the opposing parties — and in the late afternoon met with one another over a cup of tea to discuss the happenings of the morning. They went over the events of the day to insure that both parties were playing their proper roles. Both of these men felt that this was a drama that needed to be acted out. The only way it could be properly performed was if each party played his role in an effective manner. I see collective bargaining working in a constructive manner when each party truly respects the other party and realizes that these basic differences and conflicts are probably never going to be (and perhaps never should be) fully resolved — at least if it means that one of the parties will lose absolutely and the other will win absolutely. Both parties to this deliberation must be strong. The negotiating that occurs when one party is weak is not very effective negotiation. I think that we, in the Developmental Culture, have a lot to say about that. We have many suggestions to make regarding how one might help two parties come to the point where they can respect each other and still be in negotiation.

The Developmental Culture

I would like to conclude by speaking briefly about the group values in our own culture, the Developmental Culture. At the heart of our culture is the notion of *collaboration*. I met (at the POD Conference) with several colleagues last night who were talking about POD. They observed that people in this organization come together and share with one another. People in this organization seem to believe strongly in collaboration. Peter Senge (1990) has recently highlighted the distinction between discussion and dialogue. I think our Developmental Culture is in the business of dialogue. Discussion is a matter of clashing or percussion. Discussion is based on conflict and competition. In the case of dialogue, we begin by trying to discover that which we hold in common, that which underlies our relationship, that which brings us together. What is it that we share?

Once again, I refer to the essential collaboration between the Negotiating and Developmental Cultures. I think one's role in either the Negotiating or Developmental Culture is most effectively served when we bring people together. We should engage in dialogue rather than discussion, regardless of whether we are negotiating for equity and justice or planning for the growth and maturation of all members of a collegiate institution.

The negative side, I think, of our Developmental Culture is what I've already mentioned: "Cooling the Mark." We need to be very careful. How might we have worked with Gandhi, for instance, as an organization development consultant. One of us might sit down with Gandhi and his colleague in order to convince both of them that they really care about each other. Furthermore, if they really do care about each other, then they shouldn't go out every morning and confront one another in public. We might convince them both that this is a silly misunderstanding. If we had been successful, this important drama might never have taken place.

It's not our role as advocates of the Developmental Culture to try to diminish or subvert important and inevitably difficult discussions and deliberations regarding equity and social justice in our institutions. However, I do think we can help transform these discussions into dialogues. We can help both parties become more productive and can encourage both parties in that dialogue to listen to each other more effectively. Perhaps, as a first step, we can begin to practice what we preach by listening more carefully and attempting to understand and more fully appreciate the rich and complex values associated with each of the four cultures of our contemporary colleges and universities. I hope that my comments today have been of some worth in this regard.

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1993 Conference Capstone Address

An Outsider's View of POD Values—and of POD's Value to the Academy

Kathleen McGrory

Society for Values in Higher Education

Thank you for inviting me and for making me feel so much at home. It must have been that mention of the Holy Grail in my background that led Suzanne Brown to invite me here, since we are all questing, probably on similar routes. It seems to me that one could not be actively engaged in POD, or in the Society for Values in Higher Education, without being part idealist, part evangelist, and part missionary. A colleague of mine from Mount Enterprise Texas added a new verb to my organizational vocabulary when he told me about Texas missionary friends of his, about whom he said, "They've just got to *mish.*" We're not exactly "mishing," but we certainly do have a mission. That's why I'm here. I'm guessing it's why you're here, too, at the last event and on the last day of an exhausting and stimulating conference.

Let me explain what my mission is here, today. Suzanne Brown invited me to give a "capstone" address. Having spent much of my adult life teaching James Joyce's fictions, I immediately thought "tombstone." I knew somehow that was not what she wanted me to deliver. My assignment today is to sum up the conference from my perspective, to give some reflections about the conference, and then to say something possibly memorable about values in higher education. I will have to ask your indulgence, since this will be not a spontaneous, but a contemporaneous presentation, meaning I was not allowed to share any pre-fabricated thoughts with you today.

Several of the special events that occurred during the week seemed to resonate with POD's mission and to tie in with the overarching theme of this week's work, discovering and sharing the values that form the foundation of what we do in and for students and higher education at our own institutions. The dramatic reading of A.R. Gurney's *Another Antigone* was instructive, while it reminded me of the Greek tailor who looked at the torn trousers of his customer, a classics professor, and asked a one-word question, "Euripides?" The professor is supposed to have answered with a question, "Eumenides?" The Socratic method at work! The play had a serious message for us about faculty-student relations, differences in values, professional motivations, ways in which we assess students and they assess us and our institutions. But it was equally obvious, from the various award presentations that began and ended this conference, that the spirit of fun is held as a value by POD members, too.

Several of the themes I heard during the meeting seemed to recur again and again in different rooms, on different days. The first of these is change. The second is diversity. The third is an unanswerable question: "What is the role of the faculty developer within the institution?— unanswerable in generalities, answerable only by the life and effectiveness of the professional POD member working in each individual system or institution. Among this company of like-minded POD colleagues, it's fairly clear what your mission is. But when each of you returns to his or her campus, some of you will go home to extreme isolation and more than a little ambiguity about where you fit — certainly not ambiguity from your perspective, but from the larger institutional perspective. How you are perceived will undoubtedly affect your mission and, to some extent, your professional effectiveness. Some of you are lucky enough to be clearly perceived by enlightened faculty and administrators as colleagues helping faculty and the institution itself to develop their potential. But some of you have spoken about being perceived, not as colleagues, but more like administrators with an imposed mission to "improve faculty performance." Others gave examples to illustrate how they are perceived as part of the academic dean's scenario on "a bad hair day," after too many student complaints about Professor X, along the lines of the A.R. Gurney play. The latter is more likely to happen in institutions governed by administrative fiat rather than in systems in which collegiality is an institutional value. "Suddenly we had faculty development."

No matter what your situation, each one of you is dealing with the most volatile idea and value on campus, the idea of change. You recall the question about how many communists it takes to change a lightbulb? "None, because the bulb contains within itself the seeds of revolution." How many POD members does it take to change a lightbulb? One, but only if the bulb wants to be changed. Academic communities are among those most highly resistant to change. This fact of academic culture makes your mission all the more challenging, and all the more rewarding when you succeed.

I think it's important to say here that the arena in which we all work, "The Academy" (as Suzanne has put it in the title she assigned to my talk, "An Outsider's View of POD's Value to The Academy"), for all its claims of open-mindedness, impartiality, equity — and all of the other values we like to put in our mission statements — is still one of the most highly stratified and class-conscious forums of human endeavor. I'm not only talking about rivalry between disciplines, competing for dollars or majors—but there's too often a genuine lack of respect on the part of some people for other people who happen to belong to a different culture: for example, the culture of academic affairs or the culture of student affairs, where these are at odds. There are lots of communicational gaps in higher education that no one intends. This is not how higher education is supposed to be.

Having seen your reader's theater and enjoyed your presentations, and having heard what POD stands for (I've heard "Peas in a Pod," "Participate Or Die"), I've concluded that everybody should have a POD of his or her own. But POD is helping, and can help strengthen, within higher education, some of the values we need in order for the supreme value of "the Academy," education for responsible living, not merely to survive but to prevail. Already your name means "POD Optimizes Diversity," "POD Overhauls Developers," and maybe even "POD Outlaws Deadbeats." What is unusual about POD, judging from the sessions I have attended and the members I've heard from this week, is that there is so much collective energy directed toward a central mission. You may not know it, but it really is unusual to find so many people agreeing on what it is you want to be and what are the values you wish to profess.

When the Society for Values in Higher Education does a "Values Audit" for an institution, we take literally a wise teacher's saying, "By their fruits, you shall know them." Again, the Socratic method proves useful: we know what the institution said in its mission statement, but who are these people really? Do their actions and behaviors mirror and manifest the values in their institutional mission statement? Looking at the short form of POD's mission statement in my conference packet, I saw that the important verbs in your statement are "to *nurture*, support and *encourage* members." In the larger picture, obviously, the student is the primary beneficiary of your focus on teaching and learning. You believe in humane pedagogies. You assume that positive change is a good, that personal development must be part of whatever you do—not just professional development, but personal development. You see the value of research on teaching and learning. You have a strong interest and belief in the value of networking. From what I have seen this week, and if you are representative of typical POD membership, then you do indeed practice what your mission preaches.

Before coming to Minnesota for the POD conference, I had been preparing materials for the 70th anniversary meeting of the Society for Values in Higher Education, the annual "Week of Work," to be held at Emory University next July. In reading something published for the twenty-fifth anniversary of the Society, I was struck with its relevance to POD. In a document published in 1949, the president of SVHE, who was then heading an inter-governmental refugee agency that worked beyond the end of World War II, said that every organization, regardless of its age, should be constantly asking the same questions that I have heard in my sessions with you. "What is our purpose?" "What activities do we engage in?" "What are our values?" "What are our defects?" "Could the time and money now put into this organization be invested in it in other ways?" And, finally, "Should the organization expand?" The author went on to say "People like us are among the luckiest in the world in the matter of mental and spiritual self-sufficiency, but we might become starved and lonely if left to our own private devices." Finally, he said of the annual week of work, "It produces new life and accelerated growth, precisely because it is beth scholarly and merry." You don't hear that said about very many of our staid professional organizations, but it certainly is true of this group. The founders of SVHE spoke of their organization as being a fellowship of kindred minds. That's certainly what I found here in POD, as well.

This year's conference announcement, the call for presentations (not for papers, I notice), began with SVHE values pioneer Dick Morrill's definition of values as standards, patterns of choice. Then it took off on an enlarged definition that broadened the field of your concerns beyond the personal into the institutional, especially focused on the student and the faculty. The overall title of your conference, "Unveiling Inherent Values, Invigorating Values Inquiry," is precisely what higher education, and every other American institution, will be doing in the years ahead. You certainly have a jump start on what is becoming a nationwide impulse.

One of the things that came into focus while I sat with you, listened and talked with you, is how closely your concerns mirror the national concerns of higher education today. What will occupy our successors in the jobs we now hold in our own institutions? Most certainly, the "unveiling" of inherent values and the "invigorating" of values inquiry" must be built into the *modus operandi* of the institutions that will survive the values holocaust of our century. You regard values teaching as values inquiry, which is precisely the point of my own Society — that we are to promote values inquiry, not as though "we" had the truth and "you" need it, but in the realization that we are all seekers, all of us "questers," looking for our piece of truth as it is unfolded before our eyes, often through research, more often in exchanges with students, and very often in feedback by faculty. And so, values inquiry becomes a tool, a technique, but more than that, a way of life for effective teaching and lifelong learning.

In assessing our own role in the universe of higher education, we have to take into consideration the "whole world catalogue" of institutional life: its structure, its governance, its leadership, how it makes its decisions, and its rewards. Each of these reflects the values of the institution and, frankly, they are reflected nowhere else, not in the mission statement, but in the actual works and days of the institution. A few months ago I met Suzanne on a similar podium, in a statewide system's discussion of the moral responsibility of the university. We need to keep that discussion going, looking at our institutions as though they were moral persons, because institutions, too, have very deeply set value systems and these values sometimes reveal themselves at the oddest moments, when you least expect them. When you expect that your mission statement values will kick in, you suddenly find yourself, institutionally, doing something else, like inhumane downsizing, or reward systems that don't truly reflect the value you say you place upon teaching, when compared with the rewards for research. This is why I see POD and POD members as a kind of conscience within the institutions of higher education.

Therefore, in fulfilling my mission for POD during this conference, I put on my values-inquiry lens to see what actually did take place. I should mention that I regard faculty development, like all responsible human behaviors, as a moral undertaking. For that reason I see you all as A.O.C.: Anomalies on Campus. The reason for this is that, having seen some of the results from surveys you've taken, I've found it extraordinarily interesting how much feedback you are giving each other. You're sharing freely without copyright and without many restrictions. I found it interesting, too, that you have catalogued your own reasons about why you think faculty would want to change. What is it that would motivate faculty to change? The results of the new perspective that Alan Wright put out are more than helpful. They are enlightening and encouraging. I couldn't help contrasting your discoveries with those that emerged during an evaluation visit I chaired for an unnamed New England college. The president of the institution had discovered what he thought were the prime motivations that would move faculty to change. He told me, "Early on in my presidency, I discovered that faculty respond to only three stimuli: sex, money, or fear. Since I couldn't use sex or money, I decided to use fear." This is a true story. And a sad one. The damage done by such misconceptions goes very deep into the fabric of a college or university. Which is why we need POD to publish your findings.

High on your list of motivators is feedback from deans and department heads interested in fostering attitudes that recognize the importance of teaching and the recognition of teaching in tenure and promotion decisions. High on the list, too, is money and released time to prepare proposals. Also high on your list, the role of senior administration in support of faculty and the recognition of good teaching as an equal partner with research. This is simply not happening in most American institutions. We mention teaching first in our mission statements and then we go on to reward almost everything else because teaching, at this point, is not a glamour issue. I think it could be. That's where we get back to POD. You are modeling what institutions themselves could do.

The latest research on the gang warfare that's destroying our cities seems to show pretty conclusively that young people today have two very basic human needs that are not being fulfilled in their homes, churches or schools: respect and belonging. These two needs appear to be so deep-seated that young people drop out of high school because they certainly don't find either respect or belonging in their schools. The same two qualities, or values, are what we, as adult professionals in academe, need, perhaps more than we need our degrees. It seems to me that in creating POD, you've actually given structure to a place where you all feel safe enough to talk about your successes and failures, to share your euphoria and anguish. There seems to be little of the competitiveness we have all experienced in other professional meetings where there is a lot of one-upmanship going on, where people are lobbying for jobs in a "meat-market" ethos. That clearly is not what's happening here. You are to be congratulated on maintaining the ethos of humane professionalism. There is always a danger of creeping competitiveness and of wanting to sound better than someone else who's doing the same thing. I think that you, being as sensitive as you are to human behaviors, realize that would be destructive to what POD is all about.

Your POD meeting was also a place to meet new concepts and pedagogies for the first time. I attended an interesting session on TQM, something we all need to know more about. Many of those whose institutions have introduced Total Quality Management modules or techniques — or any other "newness" — may have no quarrel with

TQM, but an enormous quarrel with the top-down manner of its introduction to the system. "It's not what you're doing, it's how you're doing it that's killing me," a message to administrators from faculty that probably ought to be engraved on the walls of every college and university in America. It takes a certain amount of insensitivity these days to ignore the humane need to involve people in the decisions which will affect their lives and their students' lives. The rule of thumb that I employ is that policies are best formulated at the level closest to the level at which they'll be carried out. Controversial new methodologies like TQM would be more effectively introduced if we all remembered the value of meaningful consultation.

I'm now at the point where I'd like to give you some feedback as to what I heard at the conference and about the values I saw exhibited. Values are a bit like the operating systems that run our moral engines. And like our technology and its inner workings, values systems are easy to misread. That's one of the benefits of conferences like this, in which we all find help to interpret what it is we are seeing in the behaviors of our faculty. Why would faculty want to change? If we were able to devise a values flow-charting of incentives to change directed toward the least changeable and the most-suspicious-of-external-change agents of any group in ancient and modern society, our faculty (and I am a faculty member at Georgetown, so I include myself in this descriptor), we might start at the top, with the most idealistic answer to the question of "Why?" "Because it's the right thing to do." That doesn't work. Why is it the right thing to do? "Because it will make me a better teacher and person." Why? "Because it will take off my rough edges, or help fix whatever's broken." I may not agree with you that anything's broken. Why? "So that students may learn better and more, so that you, as a person, may experience greater success and satisfaction, so that this university may fulfill its mission, so that higher education may deserve and fulfill its public trust." Well, maybe. I would like us to see everything we do put on that macro level, but I think many of us are so bogged down in the micro that we sometimes can't get our job done. We have a great mission, which is to try to reveal, to unveil the larger picture, as your conference theme suggests. Whatever each one of us does as a part of a genuine team to affect the student in a beneficial way will affect not just this institution, but it will ultimately affect higher education in America at a time when public trust and signs of hope that education can make a difference are desperately needed.

Of all the sessions I attended, the one on the spirit of POD was most revealing about how the members see themselves and each other. We were asked to list values and behaviors that we perceive as being good to have or desirable, and then to compare these with what's actually being revealed here in POD. I learned that POD is perceived as a community different from a collegial grouping, but also collegial, a community in the sense of sharing similar thoughts and beliefs and values, collegial in a sense of *esprit de corps*, a sense of being equals; that POD is an advocacy group (there's that "mishing" again); that there's mutual respect for each other, and a note of service in what you do. I heard that there's an openness to newcomers, an openness to ideas, an openness to collaboration, to inclusion, to sharing, to participation, dialogue, learning, and teaching. Someone said, I think quite wisely, that one of the reasons you may enjoy each other so much is that you are so independent when you're back on the job. You come out of the cold into a warmer environment where you can be yourself and find the kinds of support that you often don't find in your home community. I noticed the equality, no doctors, no titles, only first names on badges. This is similar to SVHE's practice and signifies the same values: a willingness and a desire to mirror the values that you profess, valuing people over numbers in research, hard work, volunteering. I heard some of the less tangible, harder-to-get-a-hold-of virtues and values, such as integrity, trust and honesty. Here there seems to be not a lot of acrimony, not a lot of hidden agendas. On the contrary, there does seem to be an attempt at frankness, which is, quite frankly, refreshing.

Someone mentioned that in POD, you're used to meeting not in a city but in quiet surroundings, not in an urban center, not in a hotel with a hundred tunnels. But the fact is that all of us live in the "city of the world," the crowded human city recognized with all its warts by Saint Augustine. The difference between meeting at, say, a lovely golf-course-studded place in the South or in the West or in the North is the difference between a resort and a retreat. It can look the same to the outside world, but I think you're the only ones who know what goes on in the meeting. We're having our annual meeting in Atlanta next year, after being at Bowdoin this Summer and the previous Summer at Colorado College in Colorado Springs. We'll be at Claremont College in 1995. So, Atlanta in July, late July, is going to be a real test of our devotion. We also feel that it is important to mirror to the members and to ourselves that we are not an ivory tower group, that we know that most of the action is happening in the inner cities. What will happen if all we do is go from a country campus without a lot of diversity (one of your members told us that in her university, "diversity" means when your purse and shoes don't match!) to another resort-like area where we're not truly in the milieu that will help us focus on our problems? These are decisions that can only be made by the individuals doing the planning. I'm for diversity in sites, as a reminder of the broader diversity we claim as a value in American pluralism.

What about the role of the lay people in the organization? Suppose someone is not involved in faculty development, what then would happen to that person? Say you have a history professor who's interested, how will the group respond to that person? At this point, I'd say you'd respond very well. It seems to me that you don't differentiate. This seems to be a rejuvenating, almost spiritual exercise for some. The world of the future will not cringe from such words as spirituality, values, morality, even religion, provided we don't use those concepts as weapons. Rugged individualism will not work for the institutional good of our students and ourselves. The equally American values of networking, mentoring, interdependence just might.

The issue of diversity seems important to you. It's certainly important to all of us in higher education. As I look around this group, it doesn't *look* very diverse. I know I'm not seeing the whole organization. But what is diversity? There is more to it than ethnic, religious, and racial difference. American pluralism has now embraced gender, age, and even cognitive differences as welcome parts of the mix. POD could help us define such terms as diversity in global ways, so that we might learn from each other to regard diversity as a value itself and not treat it as a problem. It can be a problem if we let it become that. Higher education needs a higher consensus model to help us move beyond tolerance—beyond simply tolerating each other's differences. With the help of groups like POD and SVHE, we will discover, through education and counseling and reading, how the otherness of the other will enrich our own experience—how this person will bring to the negotiating table, to the classroom, to the organization something that wasn't there before because we didn't have representatives of that particular culture, race, religion, or way of looking at things.

What finally came out of that "Spirit of POD" session was a list of values that might be adopted for any faculty development effort anywhere in the U.S., not simply values associated with POD. The top five of the values appropriate in a faculty development person were: learning, collaboration, support, continuous improvement, and open-mindedness. And here were the POD values: collegiality, quality, inclusiveness, trust, integrity. The POD values are more personal and internalized, and a POD meeting is obviously a place to get those internal batteries charged. On the contrary, many faculty development professionals, in their workplace, find themselves on "discharge" as far as their internal batteries go. You saw faculty developers typically acting as advocates for processes, creating opportunities, consulting, modeling, analyzing. Those are very active attributes. On the POD side of the house, typical behaviors were: sharing, nurturing, growth (there was some argument about that), mentoring, and consensus. Once again, a familiar pattern emerges. There is individuality on the job and a collegiality, a feeling of being in community, in POD. This is rare and ought to be preserved at any cost. Don't worry about being considered a womb-like environment. That will never happen. We have to posture as children to be treated as children. I think we all learned that early on in behavioral science. If we keep insisting on rights and responsibilities of ourselves and others, I think we will continue to be able to enjoy this kind of POD-like nurturing which is certainly not available to many people at the MLA, AAHE, AAC and so on. It is interesting too that the chief value of the faculty developer is learning, but it focuses on teachers.

Having extolled the virtues of POD, and all of us, we may now proceed with the canonization, because we have all emerged with zero defects. This is the ideal in TQM. One of my favorite stories from this conference was told in the TQM session: the U.S. corporate buyer who insisted that his Japanese supplier provide his company with parts that were 90% perfect. The puzzled Japanese firm sent him ninety parts that had zero defects and ten that had defects, wondering why he wanted the ones with defects. I'd like to thank George Jops for that story. It was very appropriate in the conference's context of the revelation of values not always apparent on the surface.

"It couldn't happen here," because we in POD and SVHE spend all of our professional lifetimes trying to help and sensitize others to values like justice, equity, compassion, community; and because our own backgrounds and educations have privileged us to recognize prejudice in the speech and actions of others. That's probably true. The more educated we become, presumably the more sensitized we are to the use of spoken language and body language and behaviors. That's undoubtedly true. Yet, even we might forget and serve a pork entree on the Jewish sabbath. We have probably all heard jokes made by faculty about administrators and vice versa. When I was a dean, I began to collect jokes about deans. "An associate dean is a mouse training to be a rat." Some jokes are even less humane. A member of the Society for Values in Higher Education is currently doing research on "dumb blond" jokes, showing how these slighting stories have affected blond women. Sociologists have shown that the prevalence of such jokes in American culture have often caused blond women to act in ways they might not have, if they had not been mindful of the joking assumptions about their intelligence and sexuality. What we're really talking about is what Sandra Harding wrote about in a recent SVHE publication and what Johnella Butler talked about during this conference — what Sandra calls the need to assume "multiple subjectivities" in order to understand the impacts we have upon others who are different from us. Only in that kind of bringing together of opposites, not emphasizing differences but finding reasons to respect and even admire, will any of our organizations make any sense, and any community, out of higher education in the future. If we continue as we are, polarized, without ever meaning to be polarized or knowing that we are, we will, indeed, have a chaos in higher ed. It won't be the fractal kind of chaos with lots of order lurking beneath the surface. It will be the kind of disorder which has brought larger institutions than higher education to their knees. Despite what critics say about "political correctness," we can probably never be too sensitive to the legitimate needs of others for respect and belonging.

Here are some of the polarities which I hope we'll expunge from our academic language: "the top" and "the bottom" of institutions and organizational structures. In the fallacy of the missing opposite, when we name one polar, we're assuming the other, even though we may not say it out loud. I heard in several groups that things were filtering down from deans and department heads. Did you ever hear of anything filtering up in higher education (there's another expendable polar opposite)? Yet, that is a process that does happen in higher education. I also heard about academic versus student affairs, another polarity that induces a kind of academic schizophrenia in both faculty and students. Many of you are lucky enough to work on campuses without this split existence. The student as Academic Person and as Social Person has a right to collegial teamwork in which both academic and student services professionals work as partners in the service of the same student. But on some campuses, these are still separate domains, little kingdoms, each with its own walls. It's clear that we live in a world of relativity, in which "up" for one person might be "down" for another. The prestige of a deanship might be traitorism to another. Therefore, we've got to pay attention to opposing points of view—not adopt them, but at least try to understand them and bring them into the equation.

We need to find new ways to talk about relationships and relatedness. One eminent Black educator, Chuck Willy of the Harvard School of Education, prefers to use the terms "dominant" and "subdominant." As a faculty development professional, you relate to faculty and students in a way that's different from the ways in which deans relate to faculty and students, the ways in which counselors, psychologists and other service professionals relate, and even different from the ways in which faculty members relate to each other in a nondevelopment setting. You are in the middle, in a very good place to be. It seems to me that we are now in the era of cross-training, cross-dressing, cross-disciplinary studies. It may be disturbing for some people to see those old boundaries beginning to blur. As long as the boundaries remain, they are like Maginot lines, lines in the sand during the Persian Gulf war. I actually heard a lot of metaphors of war used here this week. "We've been able to crack all the sciences," meaning, we've got someone from each of the sciences to join us. Although harmless in themselves, such lapses into the language of violence do convey attitudes of opposition over the long term.

I'd like to end here with a quote from the local paper: a woman who was director of women's studies at a state university wrote about her experience of giving birth to an autistic child, now 21. "Because I had an autistic child like Paul, I was forced to confront my deepest prejudices. Beneath all the other differences which might define human beings, there was one which for me which was unquestioned, and that was intellect. Living all of my adult life in an academic environment, I had never been forced to consider that intellect is not the same as merit. It is not the same as virtue. It is a gift of nature as surely as any other. We don't ask for our intelligence, and we can never do anything to deserve it. It is simply given, a gift."

In spite of the title of these remarks today, I hope I may leave you with the conviction that there is no "outside" and "inside" in POD or in SVHE or in higher education. There is a team. And anyone may be a member if that person knows what he or she is getting into and agrees to be there. Hodding Carter in his recent autobiography said that he entered Bowdoin College as a bigot and in the four years that he was there, every single one of his accepted beliefs and assumptions was challenged. What a great tribute to any college. However, he concludes: "I left there with my prejudices, still. But I wasn't a bigot anymore." You are the people who challenge the assumptions that are getting in the way of the student as learner and of the faculty as change agent. But like the professor in A.R. Gurney's play, faculty members are not all paranoid: some people *are* out to get them. It is up to us to understand their nightmares as well as their dreams, and to try to help them get where they want to be. That old friend from Mount Enterprise, Texas had a recurring nightmare, that he would wake up one day and have no one to teach. It is probably the worst of all possible academic nightmares, but it will happen if change does not happen in the people we are now trying to ease into better ways of doing things. Presidents, deans, and others who partner with faculty development staff can help change entire environments by their positive attitudes as well as by balanced reward systems, by inexpensive means like a simple smile, words of encouragement, or rewards that reveal the institutional value placed on good teaching. This is the least we should expect from our policy makers and leaders.

Faculty development personnel are in the right place in the right time. But if there is one barrier to service that we must all get rid of, it is the leader as albatross — that voice heard in the French Revolution, coming from the rear of the vanguard of populace surging ahead, shouting "Let me through! Those are my people, and I am their leader!" You are already helping our teachers to teach and our students to learn. You understand better than any other member of the academic community the values that move faculty and students to embrace constructive change. Use that knowledge to help your leaders lead and to help your governors govern. Let the leadership of higher education know that you are a major institutional resource. Thanks to POD for being a prime source of support for all our efforts to restore higher education to the public trust and to remind us in gatherings like this — that we're all lifelong learners and that higher education is a team endeavor. Thank you.

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The Professional and Organizational Development (POD) Network in Higher Education is devoted to improving teaching and learning in post-secondary education. Founded in 1975, the POD Network provides leadership for the improvement of higher education through faculty, administrative, instructional, and organizational development. The operating word in the title of the organization is "network." It's this commitment to connecting people with other people that characterizes POD and its members.

POD is an open, international organization. Anyone interested in improving higher education can join the diverse membership that includes faculty and instructional development center staff, department chairs, faculty, deans, student services staff, chief academic officers, and educational consultants. POD members work in a variety of post-secondary settings: public and private institutions, two-year colleges and graduate universities, small colleges and multiversities, and educational services organizations.

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